

PLANNING, MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANISATIONS BASIC EDUCATION PROJECTS / PROGRAMS IN TANZANIA

WHO PARTICIPATES AND TO WHAT EFFECT?

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ABSTRACT

This study is designed to investigate and describe the theory and practice of stakeholders' participation in management of basic education projects/programs run by Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) in the United Republic of Tanzania (URT). Two CSOs, one in Dar es Salaam city and the other in Mbeya city, are involved in the investigation. The study focuses on what is done with regard to stakeholders' participation in the planning, monitoring and evaluation phases of the project cycle. Additionally, the study investigates the coordination function of the URT government to CSOs involved in provision and / or support of basic education. The study has adopted the qualitative approach whereby different members from the two CSOs, Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, and Ministry of Community Development Gender and Children are interviewed. The information gathered from interviews is complimented by information from documents, mainly from the two ministries.

The findings reveal some failures of CSOs in making stakeholders' participation theory into practice, leading to less-significant levels of quality and extent of stakeholders' participation. The findings specifically reveal that the CSOs' claim to embrace stakeholders' participation does not necessarily mean participation that involves collective decision-making of stakeholders. The decision-making in the three major phases of the project cycle in both Dar es Salaam and Mbeya projects is mainly influenced by donors and the projects' elite who occupy the senior management. The financial constraints experienced by CSOs are to blame for the most of stakeholders' participation failures. On the other hand, the URT government is commended for the policies that underscore the state-CSOs partnership. However, the implementation of policies is affected by, among other factors, the financial constraints.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my mom EDINA KYASINGO for being such a wonderful mom.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

BEMP	Basic Education Master Plan
CBOs	Community Based Organisations
CCM	Chama Cha Mapinduzi
CEF	Community Education Fund
COBET	Complimentary Basic Education in Tanzania
CSAP	Community Schools Activities Programme
CSOs	Civil Society Organisations
DBSPE	District Based Support to Primary Education
DEO	District Education Officer
ESDP	Education Sector Development Programme
ESR	Education for Self-Reliance
ETP	Education and Training Policy
FBOs	Faith Based Organisations
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ICBAE	Integrated Community Based Adult Education
IEC	Information Education Communication
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IMF	International Monetary Fund
LGAs	Local Government Authorities
MCDGC	Ministry of Community Development Gender and Children
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MKUKUTA	Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kupunguza Umaskini Tanzania
MOEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
MoETV	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NPNGO	National Policy on Non-Governmental Organisations
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
ODA	Overseas Development Administration

PEDFAC Primary Education Facilities Project
PEDP Primary Education Development Plan
PSD Private Sector Development
SAP Structural Adjustment Programme
SEMP Secondary Education Master Plan
TDV Tanzania Development Vision
UNESCO United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNFPA United Nations Population Fund
URT United Republic of Tanzania
USAID United States Agency for International Development
WCEFA World Conference on Education for All

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 PROBLEM BACKGROUND

1.1 BASIC EDUCATION SECTOR IN TANZANIA, WHO PARTICIPATES AND TO WHAT EFFECT?

1.1.1 Basic education in Tanzania, a brief historical overview

In mid 19th century the United Republic Tanzania (URT) by then Tanganyika was under British and German colonization. The kind of education that prevailed was not designed to prepare young people for the service of their own country; instead it was motivated by a desire to inculcate the values of the colonial society and train individuals to serve the colonial state (Nyerere, 1967). Upon attaining independence in 1961, Tanganyika (under the late president Mwalimu¹ J.K.Nyerere) took deliberate measures to educate its citizens so that they take control of responsibilities previously performed by colonial masters. “The vision at that material time was mainly Pan-African i.e. to attain control of the governance and the economy by the indigenous community and to remove all the colonial legacies” (Wedgwood, 2005). In 1967 the URT undertook a memorable formal adoption of African socialist ideology of “Ujamaa (family hood), Socialism and Self Reliance” by officially launching the Arusha Declaration. Under Ujamaa, Socialism and Self Reliance ideology, the central issues were equal rights and equal opportunities for all and the need to reduce social inequalities. It’s this period that Nyerere’s Educational Philosophy was born. The philosophy is classified by Kassam (1994) into two headings namely; *Education for Self reliance* (ESR) and *Adult Education, Lifelong learning and Education for Liberation*.

¹ Mwalimu is a Swahili word meaning a teacher, Julius K. Nyerere’s profession prior to his political carrier

The major concern of Nyerere's philosophy was to counteract the ideologies of colonial formal education, which Nyerere saw as enslaving and oriented to western interests and norms (Kassam, 1994). According to Nyerere, education had to work for the common good, foster cooperation, promote equality and address the realities of life in URT. With regard to peoples' participation in deciding their own destiny, Nyerere highlighted that people can only be developed by participation. "People cannot be developed; they can only develop themselves by participation in decision and co-operative activities which affect their well-being" (Nyerere, 1968; cited in Prokopy et al, 1999:213).

It worth pointing out that the United Republic of Tanzania's educational system, inspired and driven by Nyerere's socialism oriented educational philosophy, was hit by some internal as well as external factors, for example the forces of capitalism from the west in 1980s. Consequently, the efforts to implement further the socialist educational system dwindled drastically. Samoff (1990) cited in Kassam (1994:8) observes that "Tanzania's transition is stymied. Its socialist vision is regularly obscured and often overwhelmed by its capitalist practice, both within and outside education".

1.1.2 Basic education in Tanzania and the role of CSOs

Currently the basic education industry in Tanzania is guided by two important policy documents; The Education and Training Policy of 1995 and The Basic Education Master Plan (BEMP) of 1996 revised in 2001 (MOEC, 2001). The Education and Training Policy of 1995 highlights, among other things, the creation of true partnership between the state and other education providers. With regard to this policy the private sector is encouraged to establish and manage schools and other training institutions. Most importantly the policy declares that basic education is a basic right to all citizens. Tanzania being a member of the International Community developed the BEMP to serve as, among other things, a response showing commitment to many International agreements on education including the Jomtien 'World Conference on Education for all'.

Essentially the BEMP was developed to deal with four major issues namely; access and equity, quality, management and administration, and financing of basic education. The areas of concern in basic education that this plan underscores are pre-primary, primary, non formal and adult basic literacy and post primary vocational training. In principle these are areas that constitute basic education in Tanzanian context.

As quoted earlier, The WCEFA underscored the importance of CSOs in partnership with states for the successful provision of basic education. Under normal circumstances the state in question is expected to play a major role in provision and overseeing of basic education. However, the Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) which includes but not limited to Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), Community Based Organisations (CBOs), and Faith Based Organisations (FBOs) have a great potential to complement the state role. German et al. (1998: 30) asserts that:

“Ensuring equitable access to education is widely acknowledged as a primary duty of state – a burden which does not face either NGOs or private sector. But government’s duty to ensure access does not necessarily mean that the state itself has to be the sole service provider, Non-state actors have an increasingly important role in delivery of education and perhaps more important, in innovation and stimulating demand for quality education”

As it might be the case in other countries, the URT has witnessed mushrooming of CSOs especially after adoption of the capitalist mode of production which went hand-in-hand with liberalization of education provision. The CSOs are expected to play their role in various ways, including participating in government policy formulation processes and provision of professional and material support. In URT for instance, section 3.4.2 of the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) 2002-2006 calls on CSOs to contribute their experience and knowledge, share information, effectively collect and communicate educational information from and to schools, communities, government and other stakeholders conduct education policy analysis and advocacy. CSOs may also be active partakers in planning, monitoring and evaluation of government programs. Here the role of CSOs ought to be that of a watchdog, critiquing the short-comings in government policies and their implementation for the benefit of majority.

Above all, some CSOs establish and run their own programs most often in parts of the country or areas of education where the government is considered not effective or completely absent. The programs aim at empowering communities as a way to strengthen them and to improve relevance and quality of basic education let alone the access to it. This motive ought to be successful when it is backed up by the state. Miller-Grandvaux et al. (2002:6) asserts that “...when NGOs work in this sector [education], they inevitably require some sort of accommodation with government. the degree to which governments do or do not actually regulate NGOs depends upon their politics, economic situation, and historical relationships with NGOs”. The central issue here is how CSOs meet government’s standards as far as the qualities of curricula implementation, teacher training, infrastructures, and learning materials are concerned. It should however, be noted that in many ways the state and CSOs share a somewhat complex relationship. For instance, CSOs ought to function successfully when the policies of a state in question acknowledges their role and freedom, at the same time for the state to formulate superb policies and their implementation the involvement of CSOs is inevitable.

One among the specific objectives of the Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET)² is to identify and improve capacities of key partners such as NGOs, FBOs, CBOs, and employers involved in providing basic education, to plan and implement education for out-of-school children. As a result of COBET and many other factors, a significant number of CSOs are involved in the basic education industry in Tanzania. Nevertheless, it’s beyond the scope of this paper to enumerate all CSOs in the URT engaged in basic education. To mention but a few, they include local NGOs like *HakiElimu*, *Mkombozi*, and *Maarifa ni Ufunguo* and International NGOs like OXFAM, CARE International, Save the Children UK, and Plan International. Generally the increase in number of CSOs in basic education industry is welcomed, especially when they claim to be agents of change. Nevertheless, this increase of CSOs ought to be

² A program devised by the government to provide opportunity for over-aged out-of-school children, especially girls’, to access quality, basic education life and survival skills.

painstakingly welcomed as it may pose some complications. German et al. (1998:30) observes that “As an increasing variety of NGOs become involved in sensitive areas such as curriculum development, an important issue is how to produce guidelines and monitor the quality of education being delivered”.

The quality of outcomes generated by a CSO depends on, among other things, its leadership style and the motive(s) behind its establishment. In Malawi the local NGOs are perceived as ‘opportunistic’ because of their tendency to shift from one area of concentration to the other to attract funding for survival (Miller-Grandvaux et al, 2002). In URT, Shivji (2003:1) claims that “.... most of our NGOs are top-down organisations led by the elite. What is more, most of them are urban based”. From this assertion the question ‘who participates in planning, monitoring and evaluation’ can be given its tentative answer as ‘the town based elite’. The question to ponder is; which is which, is it the ‘town based elite’ or stakeholders? What seems contentious here is the aspect of relevance and quality control: ‘who sets and controls quality standards if the stakeholders (or the public so to speak) are not involved?’ HakiElimu³ (2004:1) argues that “The limited space for democratic governance and opportunity for meaningful public participation constitutes the crux of the education and democracy challenge in Tanzania today”.

It is imperative to note that one of the most important things for a Civil Society Organisation to excel in its pursuits is its commitment to stakeholders’ participation principles. If a CSO in question successfully identifies its typical stakeholders and it democratically involves them in the entire project cycle, the quality of a service(s) or product(s) delivered is most likely to be outstanding (refer section 2.3). It should be remembered that CSOs are at a better chance to excel due to the fact that they work close with communities which are of small size as compared to governments which for political reasons tend to implement changes at a national level. In most cases CSOs conduct innovative experiments in educational systems in specific geographical areas

³ A well established non-governmental organisation in URT that among other things, promotes public participation in education governance.

before reproducing to other parts of the Country. In actual fact, the CSO can be an enriched source of invaluable and appealing experiences from which the state ought to reproduce and apply in its operations. In Mali for example, the curriculum model developed by *Save the Children* for their community schools eventually led to a modification of the national curriculum (Miller-Grandvaux et al. 2002).

1.2 CONCLUSION

As it is argued by Parfitt (2004) that no agency can afford to completely ignore participation, logic dictates that stakeholders' participation is quite important in development initiatives in spite of criticisms levelled against the idea (refer section 2.3). In most African countries (the URT inclusive) governments can not solely meet the provision of quality basic education. It follows that to these countries, the question is no longer whether CSOs should play a role in education sector, but how CSOs are most likely to fulfil their promise to improve the quality, equity, accountability, and relevance of education. This calls for more research work, and most importantly the flexibility, commitment and transparency of governments in policy formulation and implementation. The CSOs on the other hand ought to apply the 'acceptable' skills in the planning and implementation of stakeholders' participation in basic education projects so as to lessen the intensity of predicaments associated with it.

1.3 MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION

What is the extent and quality of stakeholders' participation in planning, monitoring and evaluating Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) basic education programs/projects in the United Republic of Tanzania (URT)?- The question will be examined in the case of two CSOs basic education projects.

1.3.1 Sub- research questions

- a) Who is planning, monitoring, and evaluating basic education projects / programs in the two selected CSOs?
- b) How do the stakeholders in the two selected CSOs basic education projects participate in planning, monitoring, and evaluating processes?
- c) How do the URT government coordinate the functioning of CSOs involved in provision and or support of basic education?

1.4 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This research aims to examine the extent and quality of stakeholders' participation in planning (designing), monitoring and evaluation of the two selected CSOs basic education projects in the URT. The research further aims at assessing the effects of stakeholders' participation to the basic education project. As an attempt to evaluate the coordination that exists between the URT government and the CSOs, the research aims at studying the historical background but also assess the present situation of government policies on participatory development and find out how these policies influence (d) the functioning of CSOs.

It is anticipated that my research will add value to the already existing stock of knowledge on participatory development in the field of basic education. The study is focused at producing a descriptive report of findings that will lead into understanding and extrapolation to similar situations. It is therefore, hoped that the body of knowledge generated from the findings will, among other things, assist the government (policy makers and planners) and CSOs (especially those engaged in provision and or support of basic education) in answering questions such as how stakeholders participation should be designed and executed for a basic education program or project to achieve better results?

Better results in question here refers to the quality and relevance of (and access to) basic education. Furthermore, the study attempts to shed light on issues concerning the promotion of stakeholder capacity, self-reliance and empowerment.

1.5 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY.

This study has been organised to be presented in six chapters namely: introduction, literature review, methodology chapter, The United Republic of Tanzania (URT) major educational policies and reforms, results and discussion, and conclusions and recommendations.

The introduction chapter carries important information on the research problem background which, among other things, justifies why the research is worth doing. This chapter also brings forth the main and sub-research questions accompanied with the aims and significance of the research. In an attempt to clarify the central focus of the research and matters that might, in one way or the other affected the research findings, this chapter categorically mentions the delimitations and Limitations of the study. The literature review chapter presents the theoretical underpinnings of the main concepts of the research namely: management of projects / programs, basic education, stakeholders' participation and social capital.

The methodology chapter, as its title implies, brings forth the presentation on how the research problem was investigated and why particular methods and techniques were employed. The fourth chapter, URT educational policies and reforms, is a chapter that dwells on the educational policies and major educational reforms the URT have been undertaking since independence [1961]. It is from this chapter that an assessment of the URT policies with regard to the functioning of CSOs and the quality of basic education at large is made. This is followed by the results and discussion chapter which, in principle, makes the research problem investigation worthwhile since it is in this chapter that the

analysis of research findings is done. The study report ends up with conclusions and recommendations chapter.

1.6 LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study faced some problems which in this case are referred to as limitations. One among limitations that might have affected the research, especially during data collection, is financial incapability. To utilize effectively the scarce financial resource the researcher had, it seemed imperative to design a research in such a way that only few important places for data collection were visited. This went hand in hand with having less number of respondents to serve the same. Specifically, the time scheduled for research was proved to be not enough for a thorough study state-CSOs relationship due to a bureaucratic oriented system of governance in URT. Moreover, while doing literature review (before and after research onset) it came to be realised that there is relatively small number of publications on stakeholders' participation in planning, monitoring and evaluating CSOs basic education projects in the URT. In addition to that most of the documents from the CSOs visited, like monitoring and evaluation annual reports were not made available to the researcher, the reason being 'they are for the project officials only'. Needless to say, these situations in one way or the other affected the research though every effort was taken to reduce the effects.

On the part of delimitations, this study is restricted itself to the following aspects: The kinds of CSOs involved in this study are those which embrace the stakeholders' participation ideology. This research is also restricted to the categories of basic education as they are applicable in the URT and enumerated in the Basic Education Master Plan (BEMP) (refer section 1.1.2) above. The research findings therefore ought to be transferable to CSOs that, among other things, advocate stakeholders' participation and for that matter operate in Tanzania or any developing country that may seem to have similar features. The chapter that follows gives an account from the literature on the aforementioned research problem.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter brings forth a presentation on basic education, project management and stakeholders' participation in decision making. To start with, among other things, the chapter in a nutshell presents the meaning and the importance of basic education. The chapter dwells more on the theoretical aspects of a project /program management and the meaning, advantages and challenges associated with stakeholders' participation. In an attempt to discuss the concept of stakeholders' involvement in decision making (participatory development) some examples are cited to reveal both the advantages and disadvantages of the concept. With regard to project management, the chapter focuses on the major phases of a project /program cycle namely: planning, monitoring and evaluation. Furthermore, the chapter pays special attention to the role of civil society Organisations (CSOs) in basic education support and or provision in developing countries. In connection with the above mentioned concepts this chapter aims at introducing the social capital theory. However, the kind of introduction does not go into details of the theory rather it aims at presenting the general concepts associated with the theory.

2.1 BASIC EDUCATION AND ITS IMPORTANCE

Various standpoints on what basic education is exist, and different societies may have different definitions of basic education. For instance, many societies limit basic education to primary education. Desmond et al (2004:19) claims that "In many societies basic education is focused on developing academic skills or capacities (cognitive development) through a core curriculum that includes language arts, science, maths, social studies and visual/performing arts". However, the document of reference of the World Conference of Education for All (WCEFA) in Jomtien, prepared by the Executive Secretariat of the

Inter-Agency Commission and published one month after the conference “*Meeting Basic Learning Needs: A Vision for the 1990s*”, defined basic education in a broader perspective as follows:

‘Basic education refers to education intended to meet basic learning needs; it includes instruction at the first or foundation level, on which subsequent learning can be based; it encompasses early childhood and primary (or elementary) education for children, as well as education in literacy, general knowledge and life skills for youth and adults; it may extend into secondary education in some countries’.

In addition to the above definition of basic education, the same document gives an account of the basic necessities for learning and writes: “Basic learning needs refer to the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values necessary for people to survive, to improve the quality of their lives, and to continue learning” (WCEFA, 1990: IX).

Based on the current data from the World Bank, United Nations and other agencies, the report *Teach a Child, Transform a Nation* (2004) of the Basic Education Coalition, illustrates the correlations between education and the standards that determine a country’s growth. The report asserts that basic education is essential to economic growth, political stability, democracy and tolerance, health and quality of life and protection of vulnerable children. The report categorically notes that no country has reached sustained economic growth without attaining a near universal basic education. It is argued that “..... one year of additional education increases individual output by 4-7% and countries that improve literacy rates by 20-30% have seen a gross domestic product (GDP) of 8-16%” (2004:7). The government of Tanzania acknowledges the importance of basic education as a necessary requirement to its economic growth. For instance, in its revised Basic Education Master Plan (2001: 21), the government of Tanzania claims that “Development of basic education has been a priority and a central requirement in bringing about desired social economic transformation”.

Given the undisputable importance of basic education, it is quite imperative to think of its proper development for a given country to reap the intended fruits. Questions like who manages basic education, for whom and how is it managed are extremely important. For instance, the basic education coalition report (2004:7) claims that “heavy investment in

primary education and tight management of that investment are the most important factors in the difference between the economic boom in East Asia and the slow growth of Sub-Saharan Africa”. However, proper management of basic education is not a government single-handed job but rather the cooperation with stakeholders is inevitable. This assertion is supported by Article V11 (Strengthening partnerships) of WCEFA which declares that, the national, regional and local educational authorities have a unique obligation to provide basic education for all but they cannot meet each and every requirement, rather the partnerships between government and non-governmental organizations, private sector, local communities, religious groups etc is particularly important (UNESCO, 2001). Nevertheless, it should be noted that in order for the basic education provision endeavour to excel, skills on management of (educational) programs or projects and stakeholders participation are a must requirements.

2.2 MANAGEMENT OF PROGRAMS / PROJECTS

It sounds imperative to know what do the term ‘project’ or ‘program’ mean before defining project management. A project can mean different things to different people. Richman (2002:18) defines a project “as a temporary endeavour undertaken to create a unique product or service” while Kerzner (2003:2) is more descriptive and considers a project to be

“any series of activities and tasks that; have a specific objective to be completed within certain specifications, have defined start and end dates, have funding limits (if applicable), consume human and non-human resources, and are multifunctional (i.e. cuts across several functional lines)”.

In this study the definition given by Turner (1999) is considered more appropriate for it categorically differentiates a project from a routine operation by giving features of a project such as uniqueness, novelty and transience. According to Turner (1999:3)

“A project is an endeavour in which human, financial and material resources are organized in a novel way to undertake a unique scope of work, of given specification, within constraints of cost and time, so as to achieve beneficial change defined by quantitative and qualitative objectives”.

To clear out the ambiguity in usage that may exist between a ‘project’ and a ‘program’ Rosenau (1998: 7) declares that a program is a collection of projects grouped together to get advantage from their combined management. A program therefore, is larger than a project. Above all, the fact that projects (and not programs) have defined time span renders the terms *project management* and *program management* not interchangeable.

Kerzner (2003:4) gives what he calls an overview definition of the project management that: “Project management is the planning, organising, directing and controlling of company resources for a relatively short-term objective that has been established to complete specific goals and objectives”. While according to Richman (2002:4) project management is “a set of principles, methods and techniques that people use to effectively plan and control project work”, Richman further asserts that project management establishes a sound basis for the effective planning, scheduling, resourcing, decision making, controlling and replanning.

It is evident from Kerzner’s and Richman’s definitions that project management is somewhat a difficult concept to define. While Kerzner views project management as a process, Richman limits project management to the theoretical aspects of it. In view of this study however, project management is viewed as a process and is best described in terms of its procedures which are also referred to as project cycle phases and classified differently by different authors. The phases include, but are not necessarily documented in the following terms: initiating, planning, executing, controlling and closing. In some other literatures for instance, the project cycle phases are enumerated as identification, implementation, monitoring and evaluation (Kerzner 2003, Rosenau 1998, Turner 1999, Richman 2002). In this study, project planning, monitoring and evaluation are considered to be the major phases of a project cycle. The parts that follow bring forth a presentation on planning, monitoring and evaluation.

2.2.1 Planning

Project planning is an extremely important initial phase of the project; it is this stage that in most cases will determine the success and failure of the project. The planning phase of project management is where the project is defined; project definition is the primary deliverable from the planning process where the framework or scope of the project is established by analyzing the needs of the organisation in question (or the project itself) and the target audience(s) plus formulating the project goals. questions that are worked out here may include, but are not limited to, the following; why the project is undertaken (motives and benefits), for whom the project is undertaken, what, how and when the project will achieve, what are the assumptions and risks and how they can they be managed? (Murch, 2001; Kerzner, 2003). In actual fact, if one has failed to abide to effective planning techniques, then one has planned to fail.

In addition to project definition, project planning phase also involves creation of a 'project work plan' and 'project management procedures' in which the following are normally conducted; formulating activities that will help to implement the project, developing an evaluation approach to determine whether the project's goals are being met, creating a schedule based on the activities and the evaluation approach, identifying and assigning appropriate personnel and material resources, developing a budget for the project, and deciding on appropriate sources of funding (Kerzner 2003, Rosenau 1998, Turner 1999, Richman 2002).

From the above explanation, it is evident that for a project to be successful it requires painstaking attention and detailed understanding of the project at its planning phase. As it is noted by Rosenau (1998:56) that:

“An effective project plan accomplishes the following tasks

1. Identifies everything required to successfully complete the project
2. Contains a schedule for the timing of these tasks and related milestones
3. Defines the required resources, assuring that these will be available at the appropriate time, and reflects the participation of these resources and their management
4. Has a cost budget for each task

5. Includes suitable contingency
6. Is credible to both the planned performers and management”.

Rosenau further observes that a project plan is a way to inform every project participant what is expected of him or her and at the same time it informs what others will be doing. For instance, Rosenau comments that “Get the persons who will do the work to plan the work. They should know more about it than anyone else. It is their task, not yours” (1998:57). Rosenau refers to the above quotation as golden rule for planning. However, it seems stakeholders’ participation in the project planning is quite important for the project in question to excel (refer section 2.3). Should the planning phase go scrupulously, project’s cost and duration are expected to lower and at the same time the quality of the project outcomes increase. Nevertheless, good planning does not necessary lead to good project outcomes; it depends on whether the plan was put into practice properly let alone other risks and un-foreseen circumstances which are beyond the control of those who plan and carry out projects. The assertion ‘*plan the work and work the plan*’ underscores the necessity to implement the plan painstakingly. For the project to excel therefore, apart from having a sound plan, it requires a meticulous execution of other phases that come after planning, most importantly the monitoring phase to be discussed next.

2.2.2 Monitoring

Rosenau (1998:9) defines monitoring as “measuring the project work to find out how progress differs from plan in time to initiate corrective action (this often leads to replanning, which may force a goal [definition] change, with a consequent need to change resources.)” It should be noted that monitoring is a regular process that aims at tracking down the differences between what was planned and what is actually happening. Its activities may include the following; tracking down whether start and finish dates for activities are being met; how cost estimates are working out in reality; whether or not planned resource (human and material) requirements are matching the actual utilization; whether or not the expected outputs are being created and most importantly, during monitoring adjustments to the original plan are made (replanning) (Kerzner, 2003).

With reference to the monitoring activities mentioned above, it is quite clear that monitoring is an extremely vital process for the project to excel. However, to a greater extent monitoring depends on what transpired during the project planning phase. Under these inter-dependency phases of project management, the '*garbage in, garbage out*' assertion holds, the poorer the project planning the poorer the project monitoring, the poorer the outputs. It should be noted that the inter-dependency that exists between planning and monitoring exists also between monitoring and evaluation. The inter-dependency observations together with the meaning of evaluation are presented in the part that follows.

2.2.3 Evaluation

Most of the judgments made in our daily lives are typical evaluation acts, only that they may not be as systematic and accurate as the research evaluation. Weiss (1998:4) defines evaluation as “the systematic assessment of the operation and /or the outcome of a program or policy, compared to a set of explicit and implicit standards, as a means of contributing to the improvement of the program or policy”. Weiss’s definition gets credit for, among other things, underscoring that evaluation should be systematic. However, her definition limits the purpose of evaluation to ‘the improvement of the program or policy’; it therefore fails to cater for evaluations that are done at the very end of the program. Scriven (1994:2097) has defined evaluation in a somewhat ‘broader sense’ as “the process of determining the merit, quality, worth, or value of entities and to the product of that process”.

There are two common types of evaluation namely; formative evaluation and summative evaluation. While the former is normally conducted during the developmental phase of the program for the sake of gathering information to be fed back to the program for its improvement, the later is considered as an end-of-course assessment, normally conducted after completion of the program. It follows that summative evaluation may also be

conducted while the program is on progress, especially when important reviewing decisions have to be made (Scriven, 1994).

From the definitions of monitoring and evaluation above, it is apparent that these project cycle phases are closely related. While monitoring entails gathering evidence to show what progress has been made towards previously agreed targets, evaluation is making judgements about the evidence. It is for this reason that other authors consider monitoring as part and parcel of evaluation. For instance, The World Bank (1996b) cited in Long (2001:17) classifies monitoring under evaluation.

It is difficult to undervalue the importance of planning, monitoring and evaluation in any program or process, especially when the aim is to fulfil the un-concealed objectives for the benefit of majority. In most cases projects bring about the intended objectives if among other factors, there is proper project management or sometimes referred to as ‘managing for impact’. Managing for impact is all about the need to respond to changing circumstances and increased understanding by adapting the project so that it will be more likely to achieve its intended impacts (IFAD, 2002). When managing for impact the project planning (design), monitoring and evaluation becomes linked processes.

The notion of having proper project management especially in important sectors like education is of paramount importance. Payne (2000) for instance, acknowledges the greater importance of educational evaluation [and therefore planning and monitoring as well] nowadays than in the past, bearing in mind the massive amount of knowledge that exists and its complexity. It is therefore imperative to think of sound ways of planning, monitoring and evaluation of educational projects that will improve the levels of quality of outcomes and provisions. Nevertheless, when one ponders on sound ways of executing the planning, monitoring and evaluation of for instance basic education projects, the question that remains a big challenge is who should plan, who should monitor and who should evaluate? The next section pays attention to the above mentioned challenge with a special focus to the concept stakeholders’ participation in decision making.

2.3 STAKEHOLDERS' PARTICIPATION IN DECISION MAKING

According to Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary (2005), the term participation literally means "the act of taking part in an activity or event". When it comes to projects / programs and policies the terms commonly used are popular participation or participatory development (Long, 2001). In activities designed to reduce poverty, popular participation literally means the participation of the poor and disadvantaged (in terms of wealth, education, ethnicity, or gender) in their development initiatives (World Bank, 1996). However, in this paper as it will be defined later, stakeholder participation is preferred instead of popular participation due to the fact that the term 'stakeholder' takes into account other persons (besides the poor and disadvantaged) who may affect or be affected by the project. The World Bank defines participation as '... a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over their own development initiatives, decisions and resources which affect them' (World Bank, 1994b as cited in Long, 2001:14). On the other hand, USAID considers participation as 'the active engagement of partners and customers in sharing ideas, committing time and resources, making decisions and taking action to bring about a desired development objective' USAID (1995) cited in Long (2001:15).

In 1990, the International Conference on Popular Participation in the Recovery and Development Process in Africa held in Arusha, the United Republic of Tanzania produced the *African Charter on Popular participation* which among other things declared that Africa's greatest resource is its people. The African charter further specified that it is through their active and full participation that Africa can overcome the difficulties that lie ahead. The charter categorically defines popular participation as the empowerment of the people to effectively involve themselves in creating the structures and in designing policies and programmes that serve the interests of all as well as to effectively contribute to the development process and share equitably in its benefits (African Charter, 1990).

The African Charter definition of participation is credited, among other things, for its clarity on the aim for people empowerment i.e. to be effectively involved in creating structures and designing policies and programmes. Central to this definition is the importance of people (stakeholders) to participate fully from the early beginning of a program (the planning phase) where creation and designing are expected to take place to the very end of the project where assessment of the project outcome (evaluation) is conducted. In participatory approach therefore, local people in partnership with those assisting them, identify problems and needs and increasingly acquire responsibility for planning, management, control and assessment of the collective measures seen as necessary for their own development. This is the central issue in Participatory development theory (Burkey 1993, Chambers 1997).

In addition to the above, the World Bank (1996) and Marilee (2000) define stakeholders as people who are affected by the outcome, negatively or positively, or those who can affect the outcome of a proposed intervention. Following this definition, it is apparent that stakeholder participation involves not merely the poor and disadvantaged. Marilee (2000) categorizes stakeholders into three groups namely; Primary stakeholders (those people and groups who are directly or ultimately affected by the project), Secondary stakeholders (intermediaries in the process of delivering aid to primary stakeholders) as well as External stakeholders (people not formally involved in a project, but who may affect or be affected by it).

With regard to basic educational project, stakeholders, though not necessarily exhaustive, may include the following; students, parents, project staff, community leaders, government officials at different levels, civil society organizations, education and human rights activists. The World Bank (1996:127) has enumerated questions task managers use in identifying appropriate stakeholders as follows;

- Who might be affected (positively or negatively) by the development concern to be addressed?
- Who are the “voiceless” for whom special efforts may have to be made?
- Who are the representatives of those likely to be affected?
- Who is responsible for what is intended?
- Who is likely to mobilize for or against what is intended?

- Who can make what is intended more effective through their participation or less effective through their non participation or outright opposition?
- Who can contribute financial and technical resources?
- Whose behaviour has to change for the effort to succeed?

Although the World Bank has admitted that the list is not exhaustive and that it only serves as a preliminary road map to guide task managers; the list gives a clue that a single programme may actually have numerous number of stakeholders. Attempts to make all programme stakeholders participate fully may turn impossible and or involve unbearable costs. In this study therefore, an emphasis is put on *key stakeholders*, who by definition, are those who can significantly influence the project, or are most important if a particular project objectives are to be met. Therefore, stakeholder participation can be defined as a process whereby stakeholders play an active role in decision-making and in the consequent activities which affect them (ODA 1995, Long 2001).

Participatory approach to development started to gain popularity in 1970s pioneered mostly by civil society organizations. Paulo Freire, the famous Brazilian educator who wrote *Pedagogy of the oppressed*, is documented as one of the participation pioneers. His theory on education of illiterates was based on the belief that every human being, no matter how ‘ignorant’ or submerged in the ‘culture of silence’ is capable of looking critically at his world and he has the potential of dealing with it if empowered (Long, 2001).

Different reasons explain the birth of participatory approach; generally it was due to the failure of non-participatory approach to bring forth the intended outcomes of most of the development initiatives (Long, 2001; Guèye, 1999). In Francophone countries of West Africa for instance, development strategies (in the first two decades following independence) were based on the notion that it was the role of the state to lay guidelines and decide on the most appropriate measures and their implementation (Guèye, 1999). The outcomes were not appealing due to the fact that the technologies adopted were often contrary to the genuine needs and cultural aspects of local communities. “It soon became apparent that the considerable resources invested in the [non-participatory] development programmes were not having a major impact” (Guèye, 1999:1).

As such, participation in development programmes and projects is seen as both a *means* and an *end*. As a means, participation is regarded as a process to support the programme progress and a prerequisite for the successful outcome of the programme activities undertaken (Clayton et al. 1997). In other words, participation is seen as a means to improve the quality and relevance of the intended outputs in a given community. As an end, participation is seen as the empowerment of individuals and communities in terms of acquiring skills, knowledge and experience to take greater control of their own development initiatives (Clayton et al. 1997). Marilee (2000:1) enumerates some common objectives and expected benefits of participation in development as “improving the efficiency, effectiveness, sustainability and coverage of projects and programmes and promoting stakeholder capacity, self reliance and empowerment”. Therefore, participatory operations in basic education can achieve many objectives, including increasing the relevance and quality of basic education. Nevertheless, what is still debatable to many participatory development activists, critics and different organizations is on how these benefits can be achieved given the complexities in nature of individual communities. The part that follows, among other things, explores the ambiguity of stakeholders’ participation in development initiatives.

2.3.1 The paradox and politics of stakeholders’ participation

It has been common in a relatively large number of literatures on participation to make note of how influential the stakeholders’ participation approach has become. In fact, a significant number of various non-governmental development initiatives have embraced the participation approach. Long (2001:171) for instance, concludes that “the participation of the poor in donor funded projects and policy formulation finally has come to be accepted as an imperative of development”. In various basic education projects that embraced stakeholders participation, the quality, relevance and access to education is reported to have relatively increased (Miller-Grandvaux et al, 2002). Furthermore, The World Bank (1996:231) supports the idea that stakeholders’

participation in education projects results into, among other benefits, quality education. In its participation source book the Bank asserts that:

‘Many Bank-assisted and other education projects have promoted the participation of stakeholders from government officials and education professionals to community members, parents, students, and employers in design and implementation. Such participation can contribute in a variety of ways to meeting the challenges facing education systems in developing countries: improving quality, promoting equitable enrolment, and controlling soaring public costs’.

In addition to that, the World Bank participation source book gives some examples of successful participatory projects in education namely: Student and Community Participation in Colombia and the Mobilizing Community Support to Primary Schools in Pakistan. Both, the former and latter projects have registered remarkable achievements in improving the quality, relevance of (and access to) education (see appendix 1).

Participation however, is not completely free of predicaments and criticisms. The main questions associated with stakeholders’ participation are whether the approach is free of ‘people manipulation’ and the ‘ambiguous nature’ of its execution (process). Parfitt (2004:537) observes that;

... critiques throw some level of doubt on the emancipatory claims of participation, arguing that, rather than [participation] empowering those at the grass roots, it simply provides alternative methods for incorporating the poor into projects of large agencies which remain essentially unaccountable to those they are supposed to serve.

The above criticism is further supported by Keough (1998) who sees the danger of participatory development being used as a manipulative tool to engage people in a pre-determined process.

Returning to project stakeholders, it should be pointed out that their (stakeholders) identification and involvement process is rather not straightforward because of the complex in nature of our communities. For instance, communities are made up of people who are different in terms of age, gender, ethnic or social group, poverty, education level, livelihood strategy e.t.c (Welbourn, 1991 as cited in Parfitt, 2004). It is therefore important to think of people with a complex range of interests; many of whom will have different priorities. For instance, people do not have the same power, there are others

with much power and highly influential. It is this community complexity that poses problems to the process of stakeholders' identification and their participation in projects in general. There is still much debate on the principles applied in deciding on who should participate, why and how he/she should participate, where in the project cycle and in what should he/she participate. For example, in a study conducted in Malawi, Makuwira (2004:1) observed that;

“Despite the importance that is increasingly attached to their facilitative role, there is a very little understanding of how NGOs actually engage their beneficiaries in the decision making processes of identification, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the projects that affect their beneficiaries' lives”.

In basic education for instance, where the main participants (and therefore stakeholders) are children, their participation in decisions affecting them in most cases is underestimated or completely ignored. Lansdown (2005) argues that in most countries throughout the world, young children are perceived as passive recipients of adults' care and protection. This stereotype seems to contravene with article 12 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child⁴ which states that “Parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the views of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child”. Efforts by various civil society organizations to promote children participation in matters affecting them, according to Lansdown (2005), have predominantly dealt with older children and relatively little emphasis have been given to children under 8 years of age. However, it's quite unrealistic to think of active participation in decision making of each and every child in any basic education set up.

Participation may actually act as another means of pursuing traditional top-down style of decision making. This phenomenon is witnessed by the research findings of Makuwira (2004) on non-governmental organizations and participatory development in basic education in Malawi. Makuwira found that the participation of stakeholders in decision making processes (at the identification, monitoring and evaluation project phases) was

4 Adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by General Assembly resolution 44/25 of 20 November 1989, *entry into force* 2 September 1990, in accordance with article 49. United Nations Human Rights.

tokenistic; decisions largely followed a top-down style. Furthermore, in a study by Miller-Grandvaux et al (2002) conducted in Mali, Ethiopia and Malawi most NGOs claimed to be participatory, but little consensus existed about what participation meant in practice. Miller-Grandvaux et al. (2002:53) reports that;

‘The initial stage of most of NGO programs involved consulting the communities by using participatory techniques to identify and prioritize their education problems, assess possible options and opportunities to solve these problems, and select strategies. Nevertheless, NGOs in most cases retained most decision-making power and sometimes used participation to achieve its own goals’.

The fact that stakeholders’ participation in decision making is very important but not straightforward makes it paradoxical, a situation that calls for painstaking planning and execution of each and every programme the CSO or the government is undertaking. Furthermore, there is a need to conduct studies that aim at discovering unique features of a specific country or community to be incorporated in planning and execution of programs.

It follows that, since most governments in developing countries cannot solely afford the provision of basic education, the question is no longer whether CSOs should play a role in education sector, but how the government as well as the CSOs in question are equipped to fulfil their promise to improve the quality, equity, and relevance of education. Can stakeholders’ participation be one of the solutions towards the improvement of quality, equity and relevance of education? The following part, among other things, focuses on the applicability of social capital theory tenets in the provision of education.

2.4 SOCIAL CAPITAL: AN OVERVIEW

Social capital as a concept has various definitions, for the purposes of this research the definitions given by Ismail Serageldin, Cohen and Prusak, and Robert Putnam were considered appropriate and sufficient to reveal the meaning of social capital. According to Ismail Serageldin (special programs vice president of the World Bank) social capital refers ‘to the internal social and cultural coherence of society, the norms and values that

govern interactions among people and institutions in which they are imbedded' Grootaert (1998:iii). Serageldin further claims that social capital is the glue that holds societies together and without which there can be no economic growth or human well-being.

Robert Putnam, the most widely recognised proponent of social capital, referred social capital as the connections among individuals – social networks and norms of the reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them (Putnam 2000 as cited in Field 2003: 32). In what may seem the use of different words to describe more the concept of social capital, Cohen and Prusak write 'Social capital consists of the stock of active connections among people: the trust, mutual understanding, and shared values and behaviours that bind the members of human networks and communities and make cooperative action possible' (Cohen and Prusak 2001:4). In fact, to larger extent social capital is based on the existence of trust. It could be argued that personal trust can become social trust thereby increasing productivity if a broad form of cooperation is agreed upon. With reference to the definitions of social capital given above, one can argue that, the basic premise of social capital is that peoples' interactions leads into social networks that have value. Social capital therefore, refers to the collective value of all social networks and the inclinations that arise from these networks to do things for each other. In other words, when individuals learn to trust one another, they are able to make credible commitments and rely on generalised forms of reciprocity.

Robert Putnam speaks of the two basic forms of social capital namely: *bonding* and *bridging* social capital (Field, 2003). Bonding social capital refers to the value assigned to social networks between homogeneous groups of people and Bridging refers to that of social networks between diverse social groups. In an attempt to explain how the forms are helpful in meeting different needs, Putnam (as cited in Field 2003: 33) emphasize that;

“Bonding social capital is good for ‘undergirding specific reciprocity and mobilizing solidarity’, while serving as kind of sociological superglue’ in maintaining strong in-group loyalty and reinforcing specific identities. Bridging connections ‘are better for linkage to external assets and for information

diffusion', and provide a 'sociological WD-40' that can generate broader identities and reciprocity'.

Social capital is an imprecise multi-dimensional social concept with numerous causes, the feature that renders social capital difficult to be measured (Field 2003). Dudwick et al. (2006) enumerate six dimensions of social capital as: groups and networks, trust and solidarity, collective action and cooperation, information and communication, social cohesion and inclusion, and empowerment and political action. On the other hand, in an attempt to enumerate different causes of social capital, Halpern (2005) categorises the causes into micro, meso and macro levels. At micro level the causes of social capital includes: education, work, religion, age etc. While at the meso level the causes of social capital includes: civil society, school and community, ethnic and social heterogeneity etc. The Culture, economy and institutions have been mentioned as causes of social capital at macro levels.

In recent years social capital has been seen as one of the crucial economic development and growth determining factors in a given society. For instance, nowadays social capital is considered to be a complement to other types of capital that traditionally deemed the only determinants of the process of economic development and growth namely: natural capital, physical capital and human capital. Social capital is what is referred to as a missing link to the process of economic development and growth for, unlike other types, it gives an account on the way in which economic actors interact and organise themselves to generate growth and development (Grootaert, 1998). Grootaert's (1998) idea on the importance of social capital in development growth is further supported by Strom (2001) who insists that "If societies are to prosper, citizens not only need physical and human capital, but also social capital" (as cited in Stolle and Hooghe (eds.), 2003: 3).

Fournier in UNESCO (2002) introduces the social capital concept in a rather different but interesting way that, social capital is often the only capital that the poor have. He further insists that for the poor, the only resource they have is often each other. It follows that for countries in the developing world, social capital cannot simply be ignored. It is a fact that social capital allows people to resolve collective problems more easily; that is, people are

normally better off if they cooperate with each other. For instance, when people are trusting and trustworthy, and maintain continuous interaction, the execution of daily pursuits and flow of information may become relatively unproblematic. In particular, social capital is of extreme importance to poverty stricken Sub-Saharan Africa where, according to the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) official website, the population has grown faster than any region over the past thirty years despite the millions of deaths from the AIDS pandemic. The website further reveals that between 1975 and 2005, the population of Sub-Saharan Africa more than doubled, rising from 335 to 751 million, and is currently growing at a rate of 2.2 per cent a year.

The fact that Sub-Saharan Africa is one of the richest natural resource regions in the World (Lelo et al. 2000), dictates that when this region's high population density goes hand in hand with deliberate efforts to promote social capital growth the resultant outcome is most likely to be commendable. In this case, the promotion of social capital which in turn, according to Coleman (1998), creates human capital is seen as one among appropriate ways to make the Sub-Saharan Africa's high population useful. This assertion is supported by the African charter (1990:4) which claims that 'African countries must realize that, more than ever before, their greatest resource is their people and that it is through their active and full participation that Africa can surmount the difficulties that lie ahead'. It is quite important for the governments in developing countries as well as the mushrooming civil society organisations in developing countries to promote development of social capital for this will, among other things, provide opportunities for participation and empower the voice-less.

With reference to various definitions of social capital given above, it is evident that, social capital in recent days has been recognized as an important factor in poverty reduction, social stability as well as economic development. Smith (2001:2) reveals that 'there is a considerable evidence that communities with a good stock of social capital are more likely to benefit from lower crime figures, better health, higher educational achievement and better economic growth'. Cohen and Prusak (2001) admit that the idea of looking social capital into firms and organisations is relatively new and this, according

to them, may be due to the dominance of more mechanistic and system-oriented conceptions of organizational activity that have masked their deeply social nature. At a firm or organisational level, the argument of those concerned with social capital is that when harnessed it generates economic returns. More particularly, the benefits claimed include: Better knowledge sharing, due to established trust relationships, common frames of reference, and shared goals. Lower transaction costs, due to a high level of trust and a cooperative spirit within the organization. Low turnover rates, reducing severance costs and hiring and training expenses, avoiding discontinuities associated with frequent personnel changes, and maintaining valuable organizational knowledge. Furthermore, shared understanding and organizational stability ought to be a pre-requisite for greater coherence of action (Cohen and Prusak 2001: 10).

Generally, social capital provides a set of shared values and norms that support investments in education, creates ownership and involvement of communities in the educational process, and can create a safe and supportive intellectual environment in which learning can take place. But education also produces social capital, by encouraging higher levels of participation and civic engagement on the part of citizens and communities. This symbiotic relationship creates the potential for a virtuous circle in development, in which social capital supports educational outcomes, which in turn create the potential for more social capital. A significant number of studies in social sciences and humanities have consistently supported the presence and value of social capital in communities. However, it is beyond the aims of this study to present an extensive coverage of the said literatures; few representative studies on the impacts of social capital on education (human capital) are hereunder cited instead.

The review of fourteen studies on the relationship between social capital and educational achievement reports that most of the studies found a positive association between different scores on both counts (Dika and Sing 2002 as cited in Field 2003:46). In addition to that, Field (2003:47) cites another research finding that:

‘Stanton–Salazar and Dornbusch found some support for Coleman’s basic hypothesis in their study of social support among Mexicans-origin students in Californian high schools, in that those with higher grades and aspirations

generally had greater levels of social capital (Stanton –Salazar and Dornbusch 1995:130)’.

The high levels of social capital that Stanton-Salazar and Dornbusch refer above were due to the students’ bilingualism and associated cultural capital that led to students’ access to sources of information and to institutional resources.

In mid 90s the United Republic of Tanzania (URT) through the then Ministry of Education and Culture in Collaboration with the World Bank came out with the Community Education Fund (CEF) that aimed at, among other things, to raise enrolments and quality of primary education through increased community participation in chosen districts. The CEF registered a number of achievements including students from CEF schools doing better in their examinations than their counterparts from non-CEF schools (Galabawa, 2001). It follows that in schools where parents and local citizens (stakeholders) are actively involved, teachers and students are more likely to be more committed and achieve higher test scores respectively, in addition to better use of school facilities.

Rowley (2001) reports that after four years of implementation, the Community Schools Activities Program (CSAP) in southern Ethiopia resulted into appearance of patterns that make it possible to identify the sources of social capital and test social capital theory in situ. The CSAP was designed to work with and increase the number of stakeholders in primary education from the national to the community level. Among other intentions, the CSAP was positioned to reveal social capital dynamics within and between the community and the government. According to Rowley (2001) the sources of social capital at different levels in CSAP included the following; high policy congruence, government commitment, leadership competence, commitment to reach beyond the local community, to mention a few. In explaining the program’s experience on social capital, Rowley (2001:44) observes that;

‘In CSAP, for example, social capital is used to build new relationships and networks between local and national levels to effect social change. It is used to design appropriate responses for institutions to work and act with responsibility

and vision in society. Of course, financial and human capital are also leveraged; all three types of social capital work together in CSAP, making the primary education system more relevant and integral to the total development of Ethiopia's cultural, social, and economic destiny'.

Conclusively, Rowley (2001) suggests that investments of social capital can extend and enhance school governance and produce educational improvements by identifying key sources of support. In particular, social capital is constructed when governments have a supportive policy framework that is perceived to be in synchrony with the people's social and educational agendas.

One drawback of social capital is that not all forms of social capital are associated with positive outcomes (Halpern 2005). For instance, communities that exhibit highly cohesive forms of social capital may encourage internal trust among their members while spreading hatred to the larger society, a situation that may lead to communities' un-rest. In addition to that, communities with high cohesive forms of social capital may lead to outsiders being socially excluded by not allowing them to enter into their communities.

Consequently, for the social capital concept to work better in communities, it is imperative that a particular government strives to come out with measures to monitor and or discourage growth of dangerous forms of social capital. Quite important also, the government should prepare conducive environment for other advantageous social capital forms to flourish. For instance, Rowley (2001:56) observes that 'the superstructure in which social capital operates depends on government that maintains its policy ideals and operates responsibly in local settings'. However, the current imprecise nature of social capital calls for more research work that will produce scientific findings to help policy makers in a given country formulate and implement policies on social capital.

2.5 CONCLUSION

The chapter gives, among other things, the basic tenets in management of projects. It is anticipated that the general understanding of project management will, to greater extent,

help the researcher in the data collection exercise. Above all, the general understanding of project management's three major phases is thought to play a great role in a meaningful sequential reporting and discussion of the findings. Moreover, since the study aims at assessing who does what and where in the project cycle, the knowledge of participation deemed a necessary pre-requisite. Taking into account both the strong and weak points of the participatory development theory and social capital theory, this study capitalizes on the concept of stakeholders' participation. In relation to stakeholders' participation, the questions of concern in the findings chapter are: how CSOs identify stakeholders, how and where in the project cycle the stakeholders participate, and the implications and challenges of stakeholders' participation in management of basic education projects in the United Republic of Tanzania (URT). The next chapter, research methodology chapter, brings forth a presentation on how the aforementioned research problem (refer section 1.3) was enquired and why particular methods and techniques were considered appropriate for the inquiry of the research problem.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter brings forth a presentation on how the research problem was investigated and why particular methods and techniques were employed. The investigation will follow a qualitative approach. In this chapter therefore, a description of a qualitative approach, research method, sampling and data gathering instruments is narrated. Furthermore, the chapter gives an account on data analysis and reporting techniques chosen. To start with, the chapter presents the meaning of, and reasons for the adoption of, a qualitative research approach in this study.

3.1 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACH

According to the broad definition given by Strauss and Corbin a qualitative research approach is “any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification” (1990:17). Strauss and Corbin (1990) further assert that qualitative research methods can be used to better understand any phenomenon about which little is yet known, or be used to gain new perspectives on things about which much is already known. Most importantly, apart from using a naturalistic approach that seeks to understand phenomena in context-specific setting, a qualitative research approach can also be used to gain more detailed information that may prove difficult to be conveyed quantitatively.

The choice of a qualitative research approach for this study was reached due to the fact that it's the one that puts emphasis on seeking illumination, understanding, and if possible extrapolations to similar situations while its quantitative counterpart emphasises on seeking causal determination, prediction and generalization of findings (Bryman, 2004: Silverman, 2003: Strauss and Cobin 1990). Since the aim of this research is to examine and or asses the extent and quality of stakeholders' participation in a project /

programme management, a qualitative research approach that will lead into descriptions of phenomena was considered to be the most appropriate. The focus of the researcher is therefore, to produce a descriptive report of findings that will lead into understanding and if possible extrapolation to similar situations.

Furthermore, the small population sizes and tight working schedules of Civil Society Organisations that agreed to work with, and researcher's financial constraints dictated the choice of qualitative research for it seemed difficult to meet most quantitative research requirements for representativeness to allow statistically meaningful results (Berg, 2007). On the other hand this paved a way for a qualitative study that seemed suitable to gain more detailed information that may have proven difficult to be conveyed statistically. For instance the terms 'extent' and 'quality' in this study carry operational definitions of 'how important or serious' and 'a degree of excellence' respectively. The terms are rather not unambiguous when one thinks of their operationalisation to quantifiable measures. It follows therefore that in order not to dilute the importance of the study findings and the study in general, a need to use descriptive methods (qualitative) rather than statistical (quantitative) deemed necessary.

The part that follows dwells on the description of a qualitative research method employed in this study, a Phenomenology research method to be specific. The part also presents a rationale for the choice of this research method in addition to an account of the challenges associated with the chosen research method.

3.2 RESEARCH METHOD

3.2.1 Phenomenology

This study has adopted a Phenomenology research method, also referred to as phenomenological study. According to Creswell a phenomenological study describes the meaning of the lived experiences for several individuals about a concept or the

phenomenon (1998:51). The German Philosopher Edmund Husserl (1859- 1938) is claimed to be the founding father of phenomenology (Aspers, 2004, Cohen, et al. 2000). Nevertheless, according to Bryman (2004:13) the initial application of phenomenological ideas to social sciences is attributed to the work of Alfred Schutz (1899-1959). Bryman defines phenomenology as a philosophy that is concerned with the question of how individuals make sense of the world around them and how in particular the philosopher should bracket out preconceptions in his or her grasp of that world. One can therefore conclude that, in phenomenology study, the researcher aims at describing the phenomenon (phenomena) as accurately as possible from the perspectives (experiences) of people involved, or who were involved. Patton (2002:104) clarifies more on what phenomenology is all about by presenting what he calls a phenomenology foundational question, “*What is the meaning, structure, and essence of the lived experience of this phenomenon for this person or group of people?*” In phenomenological studies therefore, as Patton (*ibid*) further claims, the focus is to explore how human beings make sense of experience and transform experience into consciousness, both individually and as a shared meaning.

Barritt (1986) and Tesch (1990) as cited in Creswell (1998) enumerate different phenomenological camps such as reflective / transcendental phenomenology, existential phenomenology, dialogical phenomenology, empirical phenomenology and hermeneutic phenomenology to mention but a few. In principal these phenomenological camps share some common philosophical tenets. The philosophical tenets shared include, but are not limited to, the following: *the refusal of the subject – object dichotomy* literally meaning the reality of an object is only perceived within the meaning of the experience of an individual, *epoche* (bracketing) the act of a researcher setting aside preconceived notions during investigation, and *phenomenological data analysis* comprising of the analysis of specific statements and themes, and search for all possible meanings (Creswell 1998:52-53). Curtis (1978) as quoted in Cohen, et al (2000:23) identifies the distinguishing features of phenomenologists as:

“A belief in the importance and in the sense the primacy, of subjective consciousness: an understanding of the consciousness as active, as meaning bestowing: and a claim that there are certain essential structures to consciousness

of which we gain direct knowledge by a certain kind of reflection. Exactly what these structures are is a point about which phenomenologists have differed”.

Though Cohen admits that phenomenologists differ on how they define the structures to consciousness, Its beyond the limits of this study to differentiate in detail the different roots of phenomenology, this is because the study aimed at employing phenomenology due to the fact that it has sound differences when one compares it with other qualitative research methods like case studies, Ethnography, and Grounded theory to mention but a few.

This study will follow one of the phenomenological roots known as empirical phenomenology: of which it's meaning and the reasons why it was chosen are presented hereunder.

3.2.2 Empirical Phenomenology

Asper (2004) presents some characteristic assumptions underlying empirical phenomenology: Asper claims that in empirical phenomenology a scientific explanation must be grounded in the meaning structure of the individuals in focus. It follows that for this assumption to be true, a researcher should regard the actor's subjective perspective as his starting point of the analysis. The second assumption is based on the theory of social constructions that puts forward the notion that social worlds are constructed and reconstructed by its dwellers. This leads into the logic of phenomenological studies being focused on gathering knowledge from individuals who in one way or the other have experienced the phenomenon under investigation. In other words they are the ones that construct and reconstruct their social world (Cohen, et al 2000, Creswell 1998). Asper (ibid) further mentions another assumption of empirical phenomenology that it acknowledges the central role of theory in research as well as the role of unintended consequences. The acknowledgement of theory (second order constructs) comes after the researcher has gathered empirical evidence (first order constructs) from the field. It is

within the gathering of first order constructs that the theory (ies) is bracketed (Aspers 2004, Creswell 1998).

Some procedural guidelines in using phenomenology, in this case empirical phenomenology, have been developed. The list of authors that enumerate the guidelines include, but is not limited to, the following: Polkinghorne (1989) as cited in Creswell (1998:54), Aspers (2004:6), and Groenewald (2004:5-6). The guidelines enumerated, although may have some similarities with other qualitative research methods, they pay attention to special attributes of empirical phenomenology. With reference to Aspers (*ibid*) for example who summarises the guidelines as listed hereunder, bracketing is seen in the first order constructs investigation step.

1. Define the research question
2. Conduct a pre-study
3. Choose a theory and use it as a scheme of reference
4. Study first order constructs (and bracket the theories)
5. Construct second order constructs
6. Check for unintended effects
7. Relate the evidence to the scientific literature and the empirical field of study.

It should be pointed out that the above steps do not necessarily appear the same in this study: rather some synonyms in some parts have been in place. For instance the first step in this study is covered under chapter one which brings forth the problem background, research question, definition of key concepts, objectives of the study, organisation of the study, limitations and delimitations of the study. Step two, three and four are covered in chapter two, three and four (refer to the contents outline). Lastly, step five, six and seven are presented in chapters five and six.

The Empirical Phenomenology was chosen because of several factors that include, but are not limited, to the following: In view of the fact that this study is focused on producing a descriptive report of findings that will lead into understanding and extrapolation to similar situations, the descriptive and interpretive nature of phenomenology studies was considered to be appropriate to fulfil this aim. When a comparison is made between other qualitative research methods (like case studies and grounded theory) and a phenomenology research method, though all may be descriptive,

the latter may be designed to take relatively shorter time in problem investigation. Considering the limited time allocated for this study field work and financial constraints, Phenomenological research approach was considered appropriate for the study to come up with sound findings regardless of the aforementioned snags.

3.2.3 Challenges in phenomenology research method

Phenomenology research method, as any other research method, has some challenges that if not put into consideration the study is prone to end up with unreliable or invalid findings. As categorised by Creswell (1998:55), the following is a list of challenges the researcher has been aware of and therefore taken into consideration.

- The researcher requires a solid grounding in the philosophical precepts of phenomenology.
- The participants in the study need to be carefully chosen to be individuals who have experienced the phenomenon.
- Bracketing personal experiences by the researcher may be difficult.
- The researcher needs to decide how and in what way his or her personal experiences will be introduced in the study.

Though some challenges may seem rather relative and / or abstract, for instance it is difficult to tell how solid the solid grounding of philosophical precepts is. However, in this study every effort was taken to study in depth various works of literature on phenomenology research to be conversant with the phenomenological philosophical precepts. The other challenges enumerated above were as well dealt with accordingly, some challenges like that of having phenomenon experienced participants, dictated the choice of a particular sampling technique that will adhere to this condition (refer sections 3.3.2.1 & 3.3.2.2). The bracketing of personal experiences was put into consideration by a carefully composing questions administered to informants that to greater extent hid the researchers experience. Personal experiences (or theory for that matter) in the study are introduced in the construction of second order constructs, that is after the data gathering exercise (refer section 3.5). The part that follows presents the whole process of how the study participants were found.

3.3 SAMPLING METHODS

3.3.1 Locating the study area

The research was conducted in the United Republic of Tanzania (URT), commonly referred to as Tanzania. Geographically Tanzania is located in the East of African continent. In the URT, the provision of education is liberalized. Both the state and private sector are fully engaged in the support and / or provision of education. Dar es Salaam is the biggest and busiest city in Tanzania and it is a home of most international and national CSOs. Furthermore, Dar es Salaam is still the home of many government offices including MoEVT, beside the government plan to shift the offices to the capital city of Tanzania, Dodoma.

Since the study is about assessing the participation of stakeholders in civil society organisations' basic educational projects, logic dictated that the researcher would search for CSOs that embrace the stakeholders' participation ideology. It is from these CSOs that the sample to deal with was expected to be drawn from. According to the earlier plan (research proposal), one Civil Society Organisation from three different URT provinces was expected to participate in the research project. It came to be a fact that a significant number of CSOs that were requested for conduction of research with them refuted the request, while some did not respond completely. The evaluative nature of the research project seemed one among the possible reasons for the refusal or no response of CSOs.

However, due to other factors like the researcher's limited time and financial constraints, two CSOs that responded the request; one in Dar es Salaam city (exactly as the research proposal was designed) and the other in Mbeya city (not originally included in the research proposal) were considered enough for a phenomenological research (refer section 3.2.1 & 3.2.2). Both the Dar es Salaam and Mbeya based CSOs claimed to follow the stakeholders' participation ideology. The former operates in the city but the latter has headquarters in the city while other offices and operations are in the rural areas. What is

noteworthy here is that not only members of these CSOs were involved in data gathering exercise but rather other members from outside the CSOs that seemed important source of information were as well sampled from different populations (refer section 3.3.2).

The mode, quality and extent of stakeholders' participation in planning, monitoring and evaluation in these CSOs are presented and / or discussed in the results and discussion chapter. The next part brings forth a theory on sampling this study chose to follow; finally the part also narrates what happened during the sampling exercise.

3.3.2 Locating the research participants/informants.

3.3.2.1 The non probability sampling.

In qualitative inquiry the dominant sampling strategy is non probability sampling. Non probability sampling does not depend on the selection of a random and representative sample from the larger population as the quantitative inquiry does. Patton (2002) refers to non-probability sampling as that which aims at seeking information-rich cases which can be studied in depth. The same account is given by Liamputtong and Ezzy (2005) who further assert that the aim of sampling in qualitative research is to describe the process involved in a phenomenon rather than its distribution. In contrast, the purpose of probability sampling is subsequent generalization of the research findings to the population.

This study, being a qualitative inquiry, adopted the non probability sampling strategy. The rationale for the choice of a non probability sampling strategy was based on the fact that a non probability sampling is specifically applied when the study aims at coming out with a very thorough and detailed descriptive account of findings: This implies that the researcher has to be judgmental in selecting cases that are *information-rich*. Furthermore, non probability sampling is preferable when the researcher does not have enough time

and finance to conduct an estimated high cost and time consuming probability sampling in a given research (Blanche & Durrheim (1999). The choice of a non probability sampling strategy in this study therefore, apart from being appropriate to fulfil the aim of the study, it meant to utilize effectively the scarce time and finance resources but yet come out with a thorough and detailed report.

Non probability sampling strategy has a disadvantage of its research findings turning non generalizable, an issue which is not of major concern to qualitative research and therefore nor to this study. However, the findings from the carefully designed and well conducted research can be transferable to similar situations, the situation Patton (2002) refers to as extrapolation. Berg (2007) identifies four most common types of non probability sampling strategies as *Convenience Sampling* (also referred to as accidental or availability sampling), *Purposive sampling* (also referred to as judgemental sampling), *Snowball Sampling* (also called respondent driven sampling or chain referral sampling) and *Quota samples*.

In a snowball sampling a researcher first identifies several people (subjects) with relevant characteristics and they are subsequently used as informants to recommend similar individuals (Berg 2007, Patton 2002, Somekh and Lewin 2005). The most important characteristic in phenomenology studies that the informants are at least expected to have is that of having being experienced the phenomenon in investigation. For the purposes of this study a snowball or chain sampling technique was used as the focus was to gain an understanding of those directly involved with or influenced by the particular basic educational project / program (Patton, 2002). While a snowball sampling technique was applied in educational projects, the study also did apply a purposive sampling technique to get hold of respondents not within the project. In a purposive sampling researchers use their special knowledge or expertise about some populations to select samples (Berg, 2007). In a purposive sampling therefore, as Cohen, et al (2000) also asserts, it is the typicality of cases that guides the researcher in his selection.

3.3.2.2 Sampling in practice.

The CSOs that this study dealt with, which preferred anonymity presumably because of the evaluative nature of the study, are described as follows: In Dar es Salaam, the CSO is concerned with support of learning materials to public primary schools. The kinds of schools involved are those that manage to meet the conditions set by this particular CSO. In Dar es Salaam this CSO deals with three primary schools. For the purpose of this study two primary schools were selected. The CSO in Mbeya city provides basic education to peasants with the goal of improving food security in the three districts of Mbeya region. This CSO targets a population of around 150,000 rural households.

As a measure to adhere to one of the phenomenology tenets, that the participant should have “lived experience” of the phenomenon, the researcher after having identified the CSOs started the sampling exercise with the administration staff. It was expected that from the administration office one of the senior management staff, the project manager, executive secretary, managing director or the monitoring and evaluation officer to mention but a few will be met. This senior management staff member, according to snowball sampling, was expected (after the data gathering exercise with him or her) to recommend another person (s) for the same purpose of data gathering.

In both projects (Dar es Salaam and Mbeya) the first respondent to meet with was the executive secretary of the respective project who in turn recommended the project’s monitoring and evaluation officer. In Dar es Salaam the snowball went on to other project stakeholders in the field - in this case primary school teachers and students. Two teachers and two students from each primary school were considered enough to provide information to serve the descriptive aim of the study. The snowball sampling exercise for the CSO programme in Mbeya continued on by identifying two field officers and four experienced peasants in one of the Mbeya district, Mbozi. Therefore, the total number of participants in the two CSOs was 18.

As noted earlier, a purposive sampling was used to sample respondents not within the projects or programs. With reference to this study a purposive sampling was considered appropriate; one among the reasons for the choice of this sampling method was because of the bureaucratic nature and environment of the populations outside the project. Other methods of sampling would not have allowed the researcher to adhere to required respondent attributes and would not have allowed needed flexibility in sampling. The respondents outside the project referred here includes: the officials at the ministry of education and vocational training (MoEVT), the ministry of community development, gender and children (MCDGC).

The earlier plan of the research to get respondents from the headquarters of the ministry responsible for civil society organisations engaged in provision and or support of basic education proved failure. This was attributed by two factors, one being the fact that there is no specific office that is directly responsible for the CSOs operating in basic education and second was because of tight schedule of the ministry officials' daily activities that it was difficult to get one for interview. To save time and money the researcher instead decided to visit the Zonal Inspectorate office, which is under the MoEVT, where it was possible to conduct interview with one senior member of the inspectorate. It was also considered appropriate to interview a member of the ministry (MoEVT) who oversees the implementation of policies at a rather small area, in this case at district level. This (district) was considered to be the area close to what really happens after the policies made by ministry officials at headquarters are implemented. This being the case it was possible to purposively sample out one district education officer (DEO) who is a ministry appointee responsible for overseeing all education matters at the district level.

Two officials from the ministry of community development gender and children were sampled. These officials are responsible for the registration of Civil Society Organisations. The idea to include respondents from this ministry came after the initial investigation revealed that it is the ministry responsible for the registration of all civil societies in the United Republic of Tanzania. It was therefore evident that, for a CSO to

be engaged in the field of education provision and or support, it must cooperate with the two ministries (MoEVT and MCDGC).

Dukes (1984) as cited in Creswell (1998) recommend studying 3 to 10 subjects in phenomenology studies. In addition Creswell (1998) points out that in-depth interview in phenomenology studies involve as many as 10 individuals. This being the case, this study opted to have more individuals (more than 22 participants) because some of them (for instance students) participated in data collection exercise by attending to normal (not in-depth) interviews only. It was considered un-ethical to conduct in depth interviews that tend to last long with students at primary school level. The section on data gathering instruments will explain the theoretical and practical procedures employed in gathering information from these experienced individuals.

3.4 DATA GATHERING INSTRUMENTS.

The dominant methods in qualitative research are interviews and observations. The latter having two categories; participant and non participant observations. Document analysis is another source of data in qualitative research. In phenomenological qualitative research studies the dominant data collection method is interviews (Creswell 1998, Groenewald 2004, Aspers 2004). Interviews are known to be appropriate in phenomenology studies because they tend to pave a way for the researcher to gain access to the individual(s) experiences through verbal communication. A researcher is most likely to understand the meaning from the subjects through the use of verbal questioning.

Participant observation, though claimed to increase the validity of the research findings when combined with interviews, its outcomes depends on researchers' long-term observations and interpretations (Torrance in Somekh & Lewin, 2005). In this study therefore, due to limited time of the researcher, participant observation was not used. However, the research findings' validity was enhanced by employing two data collection techniques; Interviews and Policy document analysis. The latter provided another type of data for cross-data validity checks (Patton, 2002). In the sections that follow, I present the

theoretical aspects underlying interviews and document analysis as methods of data collection. Furthermore, an account on what really happened during data collection exercise is presented.

3.4.1 Interviews

As mentioned earlier, in qualitative research, an interview is the most commonly used data gathering technique. It is a technique which according to Berg (2007:89) may simply be defined as “a conversation with a purpose. Specifically, the purpose is to gather information”. At the most basic level, interviews are conversations (Kvale, 1996). Kvale (1996:2) refers to an interview as “*inter view*, an interchange of views between two persons conversing about a theme of mutual interest”. Unlike conversations in daily life, which are usually informal talks that involve reciprocal exchanges, professional interviews involve an interviewer who is in charge of formulating and directing the questioning.

According to Kvale (1996), the qualitative research interview is defined as an interview that attempts to understand the world from the subjects’ point of view, to unfold the meaning of peoples’ experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations. In view of Kvale’s definition above, the qualitative research interview matches with the objectives of a phenomenological study. For instance, phenomenological studies aim at understanding the phenomena in peoples’ (subjects) own terms and describing the phenomena as they are experienced by people themselves. In other words phenomenology studies attempts to understand empirical matters from the perspective of those being studied (Bentz & Shapiro, 1998 as cited in Groenewald 2004, Creswell 1998), something that can be reached upon by the use of interviews.

According to Berg (2007) there are three types of interviews; standardized interviews, semi-standardized interviews and un-standardized interviews. It can be learnt that this classification of interviews, among other things, is based on the degree to which

questions are structured. Bryman (2004) acknowledges that there is a growing tendency of referring to semi structured (semi standardized) and un-structured (un-standardized) interviews as *in-depth interviews* or as *qualitative interviews*.

For the purpose of this study the type of qualitative interviews administered were semi standardized interviews with open-ended questions. In-depth interviewing entails asking questions, listening to and recording the answers, and then posing additional questions to clarify or expand on a particular issue. In in-depth interviews respondents are encouraged to express their own perceptions in their own words. While the open-ended questions interview guides were set to create a room for individual variations, semi structured interview guides in general aimed at keeping the interactions focused; systematically and comprehensively interviewing the multiple subjects as well as saving the interview limited time. Above all, the interview guides gave a room for excluding or including questions the researcher found un-productive or productive after the onset of the data collection exercise (Patton, 2002; Yin, 1994).

3.4.2 Documents

Documents are a useful source of information the researcher may depend on. In principle documents tend to be part and parcel of many research works. Sarantakos (1998:275) argues that “it is most unusual that any research study is carried out without employing some form of documentary method (e.g. a library search)”. The kinds of documents referred to here are like policy documents, brochures, reports, official records, letters, and newspaper accounts.

In this study documents are considered useful in research because they reflect the activities and processes of the project or program in investigation. Furthermore, apart from being important in generating ideas that can be used in for instance interviewing, documents also provide useful information during data analysis. In addition, program documents can provide valuable information that may not be accessible by other means.

For example, they can provide information about aspects that the researcher cannot observe because they took place before the research began or they reflect plans that have not been realized in actual program performance (Patton 2002, Sarantakos 1998, Yin 1994).

It is worth to note that the application of documents as source of data in research is not completely free from awkwardness. For instance when it comes to selection of documents there are a number of factors to be borne in mind which are rather not straightforward to deal with such as; authenticity, credibility, representativeness and meaning (Scott 1990 as cited in Bryman, 2004:381). In addition to that the researcher is prone to face difficulties in getting the document (s) of interest because some of the documents are not easily accessible. Above all the content from the documents may be wide-ranging to the extent that an extra care and time is needed to analyse. The next part brings forth presentation on what transpired during the field work that took place in the United Republic of Tanzania (URT) in September and October 2006.

3.4.3 Data gathering in practice.

3.4.3.1 Interviews

With reference to interview as a data gathering method, in this study the participants were called in advance to ask them if they would voluntarily participate in the study and also arrange for the interview date and venue when a person agreed to participate. The participant's office in most cases happened to be ideal for interview session, mainly because of the tight and long working schedules of the organisations from which the participants came. On the interview date the researcher organized the interview session into three parts: Introduction, discussion and conclusion.

In the introduction part of the interview session, the researcher took the opportunity of introducing himself by making available to the participant: the letter of introduction from the University of Oslo, and the student identity card (this seemed important because it had a picture of the researcher). To make the participant aware of the discussion to follow, the researcher had to briefly explain what the study is all about. After a brief explanation of the research, the researcher informed the participant of his or her right to withdraw from the study anytime he or she would feel like doing so. Lastly the researcher asked the participant to express his or her wishes on whether anonymity should be observed or not and whether the interview should be recorded or not. Most of the participants preferred anonymity; one participant went to the extent that she requested her mobile number be erased from researcher's phone book soon after the interview. One striking feature however, was the fact that no one opposed the recording of the interview.

In the second part of the interview session: discussion, the researcher initiated the interview by posing a question with reference to the interview guide. Note taking while the participant responded to the question was considered appropriate for it created a room for quick reference during the interview for further questioning. Furthermore note taking was considered another way in which the data can be stored until the data analysis exercise. To make sure what is written down through note taking is right, the researcher had to read them for the participant to rectify and / or add more information should it seem necessary.

The conclusion part of the interview session followed soon after the researcher was satisfied and had no more questions to the participant. In this part the researcher took chance to thank the participant for attending and participating the interview session. This last part of the interview was also used to exchange each other's address (only to participants who agreed to do so) for future communication.

3.4.3.2 Documents.

With an assumption that many practical issues concerning planning, monitoring and evaluation have their origin in policy documents, the research had planned to take a close look into policy documents as another source of data for the study. Special attention was paid to the search for policy documents of URT government (MoEVT and MCDGC) and the two CSOs involved in this study.

It proved difficult to get hold of many of the CSOs documents due to the closed nature of these organisations' files. "This is our document, the office does not allow it to be given to the people outside the organisation" a senior official of the civil society in Dar es Salaam responded after a researcher requested a copy of the annual monitoring and evaluation report. The only documents from CSOs the researcher managed to get are various study reports found online. Most of the MoEVT and MCDGC documents were accessible since they are archived in their respective web pages. The list of documents includes, but is not limited to, the following; The education and training sector development programme (ESDP) of 2001, The education sector country status report (2001), Basic education master plan (BEMP) 2000-2005, Secondary education master plan (SEMP) 2001- 2005, Adult and non-formal education sub-sector medium term strategy 2003/04-2007/08, Primary education development plan (PEDP), National Policy on Non-Governmental Organisations (NPNGO) of 2001 and the Non-Governmental Act of 2002.

3.5 QUALITY OF THE RESEARCH.

The concept of research quality is a major pre-requisite of any sound scientific research. Factors to be borne in mind when one is to assess to the quality of scientific research are numerous. Breuer and Reichertz (2002) enumerate a list of what they call *levels of goodness criteria* to a scientific research that include context of justification, context of discovery, probity, ethics, methodological appropriateness, and practical relevance.

However, what seems a big challenge to any novice researcher is the analysis of the not only massive but also contradictory literature on the whole process of how to assess the research quality (Breuer & Reichertz 2002). It is therefore definite that only a number of manageable quality control factors are normally dealt with. In this study reliability and validity as well as research ethics are discussed. The quality of research section is divided into two parts; the validity and reliability part and the research ethics counterpart. Both parts bring forward presentations on theoretical and practical aspects as far as this study is concerned.

3.5.1 Validity and Reliability

Much literature has been written on two aspects that are used to measure the quality of research, namely: validity and reliability (Kvale 1996, Patton 2002, Yin 1994, Bryman 2004, Blanche and Durrheim 1999). Hammersley (1990) as cited in Silverman (2000:176) equates validity to truth, Hammersley asserts that “by validity, I mean truth: interpreted as the extent to which an account accurately represents the special phenomena to which it refers”. Also according to Hammersley (1992) cited in Silverman (2000:176) reliability refers to “the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions”. According to Silverman (2000), the leading question in assessing the quality of any particular research when reliability and validity are put into consideration is: does the research have reliable methods and valid conclusions?

Validity and reliability have been under scrutiny for they are claimed to be more relevant in establishing and assessing the quality of a quantitative research and not a qualitative one. Bryman (2004) for instance, acknowledges that there is a discussion amongst qualitative researchers concerning the relevance of validity and reliability to qualitative research. Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested expanding the meaning of traditional criteria for judging quantitative research (that is internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity) into what they referred to as trustworthiness (Bryman 2004,

Blanche and Durrheim 1999). Trustworthiness in this case includes: credibility which corresponds to internal validity, transferability which corresponds to external validity, dependability which corresponds to reliability and conformability which corresponds to objectivity. For the purpose of this study credibility and transferability were considered more appealing in assessing the quality of a study, hence given an opportunity to be discussed.

Credibility of a research refers to an evaluation of whether or not the research findings represent a “credible” conceptual interpretation of the data drawn from the participants’ original data. In other words the research is credible only if it has identified and described the subjects appropriately (Marshall and Rossman 2006). According to Patton (2002) Credibility depends less on sample size than on the richness of the information gathered and on the analytical abilities of the researcher. Bryman (2004) further asserts that credibility can be established by several ways including; respondent validation and triangulation.

In this study, apart from adhering to the tenets of a phenomenological research, respondent validation was applied. The researcher gave research participants a chance to comment on what he has noted down from an interview by reading the notes before them. In view of the fact that the interviewers were purposively chosen basing on their experience and their ability to communicate verbally, it was considered that they would show frankness when there was something to criticize. Furthermore, triangulation which literally means the application and combination of several research methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon was applied. The type of triangulation applied according to Patton (2002) was data triangulation in which two methods of data gathering namely documents and interviews were applied. In addition to that, different participants from a single Civil Society Organization were interviewed using the same semi structured interview guides with open-ended questions.

Transferability (or extrapolation according to Patton 2002) refers to the degree to which the findings of qualitative research can be transferred to other contexts or settings.

However, the transferability of research findings to other situations depends on the degree of similarity between the original situation and the situation to which it is transferred. In principle, the qualitative researcher cannot specify the transferability of findings; he or she can only enhance transferability by a thorough description of the research context and its underlying assumptions. It follows that the sufficient information from the research report can then be used by the reader (another researcher) to determine whether the findings are applicable to the new situation (Bryman 2004, Patton 2002, Blanche and Durrheim 1999). The choice of a phenomenology research design and the use of semi structured interviews with open ended questions in this study, among other things, aimed at generating a richly descriptive report. In addition to that, this study states clearly its limitations and delimitations (refer section 1.6) which seem to be of great importance in assessing the transferability of a study.

3.5.2 Research ethics.

It is rather important to point out that a careful adherence to ethical issues, without controversy, is of vital importance for it eliminates any potential harm to the subjects let alone the fact that it increases reputation to the researcher and the research in question. In view of its importance, it is therefore imperative that ethical issues concerns should start as early as the planning phase and be part and parcel of the research proceedings till the compilation of final report.

Diener and Crandall (1978) quoted in Bryman (2004:509) present four overlapping ethical principles namely: whether there is *harm to participants*; whether there is *lack of informed consent*; whether there is an *invasion of privacy*; and whether *deception is involved*. Blanche and Durrheim (1999) present three ethical principles which are *autonomy*, *nonmaleficence* and *beneficence*. For the purposes of this study the ethical principles by Blanche and Durrheim are set as guideline for discussion. As the name indicates the autonomy principle is concerned with how the researcher should deal with issues concerning the autonomy of the participant(s). Here the researcher should be aware

that the participant is an independent being, it is therefore recommended that she or he makes sure that the participants are: informed in advance about the research and that they are willing to participate voluntarily, have the mandate to withdraw from the study anytime they feel to do so. What is more, the researcher must observe rules of anonymity in the whole research proceedings should the participant(s) so wish. As noted earlier (refer section 3.4.3 Data gathering in practice) the above mentioned ethical aspects, that is informed consent, voluntary participant participation and anonymity are observed in this study.

The nonmaleficence ethical principle literally means that the researcher should do no harm to any individual involved in a research. Here the types of harm avoided may include, but are not limited to, the following: physical, emotional, social, and economical. It should be appreciated that the nonmaleficence ethical principle goes hand in hand with the beneficence ethical principle which requires that the researcher should design a research that is beneficial. In this study both the nonmaleficence and the beneficence ethical principles are put into consideration. Apart from researcher's deliberate efforts to make sure the research is of benefit but harms no body, its research proposal was presented before a meeting of eleven postgraduate class members and two educational professors for comments. It is therefore believed that any ethical risk is reduced to the minimum possible value.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS AND REPORTING TECHNIQUES.

According to Blanche and Durrheim (1999:140) data analysis involves reading through your data repeatedly, and engaging in activities of breaking the data down (thematizing and categorising) and building it up again in novel ways (elaborating and interpreting). Blanche and Durrheim further presents five steps in data analysis namely: familiarisation and immersion, inducing themes, coding, elaboration and interpretation and checking. In reality data analysis starts as early as the data collection exercise, but it is increasingly dominant after the data has been collected.

In phenomenological studies, the data analysis exercise follows after the data collection exercise which is referred to as 'studying first-order constructs'. The steps followed during data analysis in phenomenological studies may vary; this study takes into consideration the data analysis explanation given by Aspers (2004). Aspers enumerates three steps that, in principal, constitute the phenomenological data analysis namely: construction of second order constructs, checking for unintended consequences, and relating the evidence to the scientific literature and the empirical field of study.

As mentioned earlier, while the theory (theories) and or researcher's experiences are bracketed off during phenomenological data collection; in data analysis the theories and or researcher's experiences are incorporated. For instance, developing or using a theory means that the researcher produces second-order constructs in relation to the actor's first order constructs (Aspers, 2004). In phenomenological data analysis therefore, the first-order constructs, theoretical concepts, experiences, and preconceptions are analysed together to produce a descriptive report (Aspers 2004, Creswell 1998, and Groenewald 2004). It is worth pointing out that in this study, no separate reporting techniques are employed but rather the data analysis and discussion (refer to results and discussion chapter) serves the purpose. The next chapter gives an overview of educational policies and major educational reforms in the URT since 1960s.

CHAPTER FOUR: TANZANIA EDUCATIONAL POLICIES AND MAJOR EDUCATIONAL REFORMS.

4.0 INTRODUCTION.

Education is considered the most important aspect for economic and social development of a country. According to human capital theory, education creates skills which facilitates higher levels of productivity amongst those who possess them in comparison with those who do not. As such, the Government of the United Republic of Tanzania (URT) has since independence been undergoing policy and structural reforms to improve, among other things, the quality of education. This chapter therefore, aims at exploring the major educational policies and reforms the URT has undergone since 1960s. To start with, the chapter gives an account of the major current development strategies (christened as contemporary cornerstone development strategies in this study) namely: The Tanzania Development Vision 2025 and the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP).

Furthermore, in an attempt to assess the URT deliberate efforts to improve the education sector, the chapter examines some of the major past and current educational policies and reforms namely: Education for Self-Reliance, the Education and Training Policy, and the Education Sector Development Programme. Among other things, the chapter gives succinct descriptions of government initiatives enumerated above. It is anticipated that this chapter sets a foundation for assessing the implications brought about by the policies and reforms in URT to be discussed in the results and discussion chapter. It is worth pointing out that in this chapter, as it is in other chapters; more emphasis is placed on basic education sector and stakeholders' participation.

4.1 THE CONTEMPORARY CORNERSTONE DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Since attainment of independence in 1961, the major task that was ahead of the government of Tanzania was to fight against the three major problems to development namely: ignorance, disease and poverty. It followed that, the government of Tanzania formulated and implemented various medium-term and long-term development plans of which led to the significant improvement in economy and provision of social services in general. For instance, by early 1980s over 90% of Tanzanians were able to read and write and over 90% of school age children were able to enrol in primary school (URT, 1998). It is reported that the registered achievements lasted until 1970s, before they were negatively affected by the economic difficulties which faced the government of Tanzania in late 1970s and 1980s (URT 1998, URT 1999, URT 2000).

In mid-1980s the government of Tanzania, after it was clear that the past development initiatives had proved failure, adopted social economic reforms which continue to be implemented to date. However, it seemed necessary to have the national long-term development philosophy and direction upon which the social economic reforms should base (URT, 1999). As a result, in 1999 the Tanzania Development Vision 2025 (TDV-2025) was formulated. Furthermore, the recent (2005) government of Tanzania strategy; National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) was formulated basing on the aspirations of TDV-2025 (URT, 2005). Both the TDV-2025 and the NSGRP presented below may be considered as the most important current development strategies of the United Republic of Tanzania.

4.1.1 The Tanzania Development Vision 2025.

TDV-2025 is a national vision of economic and social objectives to be attained by the year 2025. The vision expresses both hope and determination in ridding the country of poverty, disease, and ignorance. It seeks to do so by achieving high and sustainable

growth, at an average of 8 percent, and halving abject poverty by 2010 and eliminating it by 2025. In the TDV-2025 (URT 1999: V) foreword, the former president of URT Benjamin William Mkapu notes that:

‘the objective of this Development Vision is to awaken, co-ordinate and direct the peoples efforts, minds and national resources towards those core sectors that will enable us attain our development goals and withstand the expected intensive economic competition ahead of us’.

The TDV-2025 categorically enumerates attributes the Tanzanian society will have acquired by the year 2025 as: high quality livelihood, peace stability and unity, good governance, a well educated and learning society, and a competitive economy capable of producing sustainable growth and shared benefits (URT 1999:3).

With regard to the attribute of high quality livelihood, the vision acknowledges that, among other things, a nation’s development should be people-centred. Furthermore, the vision declares an important condition that, creation of wealth and its distribution in society must be equitable and free from inequalities and all forms of social and political relations which inhibit empowerment and effective democratic and popular participation of all social groups. The vision calls for the deliberate efforts to empower local governments and communities and promoting broad-base grassroots participation in the mobilization of resources, knowledge and experience (URT, 1999).

Furthermore, the TDV-2025 acknowledges the importance of education in development by clearly stating that Tanzania is determined to attain a high level of education, both quantitatively and qualitatively. According to this vision, it is education that will enable the country to competitively face the 21st century challenges. In a rather special way, the vision envisages that better education will lead into people with positive mindset and a competitive spirit in addition to a culture which cherishes human development (URT, 1999). The TDV-2025, after the failures of the past education system are recognised, requires the education system to be restructured and transformed so that creativity and problem solving are promoted. In what may seem a special attention to science and technology education, the vision states that education system must instil a science and

technology culture from its lowest levels (URT, 1999). As mentioned earlier, the TDV-2025 aspirations, among other reasons, led to the formulation of the recent National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) presented next.

4.1.2 National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty.

The National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) in the URT is commonly referred to as MKUKUTA which stands for *Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kupunguza Umasikini Tanzania* in Kiswahili. MKUKUTA, which is informed by the TDV-2025 and committed to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), was approved by the URT cabinet in February 2005 (URT, 2005). The MKUKUTA document (URT 2005:1) declares the purpose of the strategy as:

‘to widen the space for country ownership and effective participation of civil society, private sector development and fruitful local and external partnerships in development and commitment to regional and other international initiatives for social and economic development’.

With regard to CSOs, MKUKUTA acknowledges that CSOs play a vital role in poverty reduction. For instance, MKUKUTA stipulates some CSOs roles and responsibilities in development initiatives like: building local capacity and empowering communities; participating in monitoring and evaluation at national and community level; and mobilizing community resources for poverty reduction. In an attempt to widen up participation by local partnerships, MKUKUTA aims at enhancing the space for local stakeholders, including citizens, communities, civil society and the private sector in policy dialogue, implementation and evaluation of the impact of development initiatives (URT 2005:25).

To facilitate the implementation of the local partnership initiative, MKUKUTA emphasize that the Government (central URT Government) will assist the local government authorities in providing enabling conditions to fulfil a twofold purpose: (a) Private Sector Development (PSD), which involves community-based initiatives and partnerships with civil society organisations, and (b) scale up the partnership between

private and public sectors consultation mechanisms that will promote participation of private sector in, among others, provision of public services (URT, 2005).

MKUKUTA documents some recent achievements in education sector like the 2004 gross enrolment rate of 106% with a net enrolment rate of 90.5%. Most importantly however, MKUKUTA admits that the quality of education is still a challenge in Tanzania. For instance, as an indication of high illiteracy, 28.6% of Tanzanians cannot read and write in any language (URT, 2005). The deliberate measures set by MKUKUTA to improve the education sector and meet the MDGs include, but are not limited to, the following;

“Implementation of improved teaching and learning environments at all levels, Promoting effective involvement of school committees and teachers in quality assurance and monitoring, and Modifying the existing curricula, teacher training, assessment and examination, and school inspection to promote critical, creative and skill-based learning that is of use to school leavers in securing their livelihoods” (URT 2005:44).

Furthermore, apart from the URT government aiming at expanding the vocational, technical and higher education it also aims at increasing funding and at the same time implement a cost-effective and sustainable strategy to promote adult literacy. Percentage wise some of the operational targets MKUKUTA has set includes: Increased gross and net enrolment of boys and girls, including children with disabilities in primary education from 90.5% in 2004 to 99% in 2010, 90% of primary and secondary schools have adequate, competent and skilled teachers by 2010, and at least 80% of adults, especially women in rural areas, are literate (URT, 2005).

Needless to say, the implementation and the degree of success for MKUKUTA depends on, among other predictable and un-predictable factors, the availability of resources. The central factor of concern here is the current financial position of the URT and measures put in place to generate sufficient finance. In its ‘risks related to NSGRP financing framework’ section MKUKUTA admits that the current URT economy remains vulnerable to high aid dependency. MKUKUTA further insists that a substantial amount

of URT budget will continue to depend on donor support over the immediate future (URT 2005:73). With an aim to reduce foreign aid-dependency MKUKUTA does provide long-term measures to boost up its economic growth which is to larger extent agriculture-dependent. MKUKUTA however, does not provide alternative measures for the URT to rely on should for instance, the donor community respond negatively. The following parts chronologically present the major educational initiatives the URT has undertaken since mid-1960s, few years after the colonial domination era.

4.2 EDUCATION FOR SELF- RELIANCE

The move on education for self reliance (ESR) in 1967, as it is briefed in section 1.1.1, was to the larger extent influenced by the first president of Tanzania, the late Mwalimu Julius Kambarage Nyerere. After her independence in 1961, the URT (by then Tanganyika) inherited the colonial educational system, which according to Nyerere, was in many respects both inadequate and inappropriate (Nyerere, 1968). Nyerere had a belief that the purpose of education is to prepare the learner to live in and to serve the society, and to transmit the knowledge, skills and values and attitudes of the society. Furthermore, education had to work for the common good, foster co-operation and promote equality. Contrary to his belief, Nyerere saw education as elitist in nature, enslaving and oriented to western; interests and norms (Nyerere, 1968). As such, there was a strong concern to counteract the colonialist assumptions and practices of the dominant, formal means of education.

In principal, the URT educational reforms under ESR aimed at inculcating the socialist ideology to its learners. With reference to the objectives of Arusha declaration (1967) the URT had determined, among other things, to create a socialist society which is based on three principles namely: equality and respect for human dignity, sharing of the resources which are produced by our efforts, and work by everyone and exploitation by none (Nyerere, 1967). Thus, education had to foster the social goals of living together, and working together for the common good. In addition to that, education had to prepare the learner with skills and practices relevant to his/her future work. Nyerere had also put an

emphasis on the aspect that education system should produce outspoken and free citizens, he was against the educational system that produced ‘robots’ who work hard but never question their leaders. In his own words Nyerere (1967:53) asserts that:

‘The education provided must therefore encourage the development in each citizen of three things: an enquiring mind; an ability to learn from what others do, and reject or adapt it to his own needs; and a basic confidence in his own position as a free and equal member of the society, who values others and is valued by them for what he does and not for what he obtains’.

In practice the following are some of the reforms in educational system in URT under the influence of Nyerere’s ESR: On the question of making education relevant to the future work of the majority learners, Nyerere proposed that education (primary and secondary) should be oriented to rural life and productive work should become an integral part of the school curriculum and provide meaningful learning experience through the integration of theory and practice. In response to this call, schools were supposed to have farms where learning by doing was expected, but also school farms meant the schools should be self-reliant. “Obviously if there is a school farm, the pupils working on it should be learning the techniques and tasks of farming. But the farm would be an integral part of the school—and the welfare of the pupils would depend on its output” (Nyerere 1967: 64). To fulfil the inculcation of life and socialist skills, teachers and students were encouraged to engage together in productive activities and students were supposed to participate in the planning and decision-making process of organizing these activities.

With regard to primary schools, Nyerere proposed that primary education should be complete in itself rather than merely serving as a means to higher education. In relation to this, children were supposed to begin school at age 7 (and not 5 or 6 as it was before) so that they would be old enough and sufficiently mature to engage in self-reliant and productive work when they graduate from primary education. This went hand in hand with downgrading the importance of examinations for according to Nyerere, ‘examinations do not always succeed in assessing the power to reason and they certainly do not assess character or willingness to serve’ (Nyerere, 1967:62).

It is important to note that, the educational reforms due to ESR which in principle had three major directions namely; skills development, self reliance and Tanzanian socialism (Carnoy et al. 1990) did register some successes as well as some failures. Amongst the successes documented are: a nearly universal primary education in 1970s (Carnoy et al. 1990, Lexow et al. 2001), a curriculum that is more relevant to Tanzanian context and high rate (about 85%) of adult literacy in 1980s. What is more, the Tanzanian community to date reaps the fruits of social values brought about by the implementation of Arusha declaration in which ESR in schools played a major role. The Tanzania Development Vision 2025 (URT 1999: 6) acknowledges that;

...the Arusha Declaration credibly sought to realize a set of fundamental moral, spiritual, ethical and civil values that stand the test of time. Thus Tanzania today prides itself of and enjoys national unity, social cohesion, peace and stability largely as a result of the Declaration's core social values.

However, some internally as well as externally factors are known to have influenced the failure of ESR. As it is also noted by lexow et al. (2001:26) the URT investments in education fell drastically in mid-1980s due to economic constraints [caused by, among others, the high cost of 1979 war between URT and Uganda] and pressure from international financial organizations like the World Bank and donors' concerns for cost efficiency.

4.3 THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING POLICY

The Education and Training Policy (ETP) of 1995 basically reflects the shift from policy emphases of the 1960s to the early 1980s, which placed strong reliance on government control of the economy and the public sector. It can therefore be argued that, the thrust of the policy initiative is liberalization, privatization, and facilitation as opposed to state ownership and provision of facilities and services. What is more, the ETP was formulated to serve as the first ever comprehensive education and training policy. ETP is regarded comprehensive because, unlike in other short and long term development plans, non-formal education and training is recognized, promoted, strengthened, coordinated and integrated with formal education and training system (URT, 1995).

The ETP underscores that the provision of basic, secondary and teacher education shall be coordinated by the ministries responsible for these types of education. On the question of management and administration of education and training, the ETP calls for the ministries responsible for education and training to devolve their responsibilities of management and administration to lower organs and communities. In other words, the ETP calls for decentralization and streamlining of the management of education to regions, districts, schools and in communities.

With regard to the role of private sector in education pursuits, the ETP acknowledges the necessity of the private sector to be fully involved. Specifically, the ETP emphasizes the creation of true partnership between the state and the other providers, including private persons, communities, and NGOs by encouraging them to establish and manage schools and other institutions. Through ETP the URT government declares an initiative to provide incentives (to the private sector involved in education) such as tax rebate, priority land allocation, and duty free import of school materials. Furthermore, the ETP puts emphasis on co-operation with the private sector in the provision of education, including such proactive initiatives as the training of more and better qualified teachers (URT, 1995).

In general the ETP is an extensive policy that covers a significant number of educational aspects such as increased enrolments, equitable access, educational management and administration partnerships, and quality improvements to mention but a few. ETP is among the educational policies and plans that led to the formulation of Education Sector Development Program (ESDP) to be presented next.

4.4 EDUCATION SECTOR DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

The Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) of 1996 revised in 2001 was designed to look at the education sector from the holistic approach. The programme covers all education sub-sectors; basic education, secondary education, teacher education,

higher education, and vocational education. It is an extensive undertaking which derives its objectives from the education sector policies, mainly the ETP (refer section 4.3) in an attempt to operationalize them. The ESDP calls for pooling together of material and non-material resources through the involvement of all key stakeholders in education planning, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation. ESDP therefore, is considered to be a sector-wide approach to education development aimed at achieving the Government's long-term human development and poverty eradication targets, and redress the problem of fragmented interventions (URT, 2001a).

The ESDP objectives include, but are not limited to, the following: to decentralize management of institutions so as to devolve more powers of managing and administering education and training to lower levels; to improve the quality of both formal and non-formal education; to promote access and equity to basic education; to expand provision of education and training by involving the private sector; and to promote and strengthen formal and non-formal distance and out-of-school education programs. Apart from having several objectives, the ESDP has some targets to meet also: one amongst the major targets being to attain universal primary education and eliminate illiteracy by 2010 (URT, 2001a). In attempt to pursue the aforementioned ESDP objectives and target, the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) was devised. PEDP which has been implemented in the 2002 – 2006 period, aimed to cover primary education provision as well as out-of-school children and youth. The PEDP (URT, 2001a) categorically enumerates the targets of priority investment as: enrolment expansion focusing on classroom construction, teacher engagement, and teacher deployment; quality improvement encompassing in service and pre-service teacher training, and teaching and learning materials provision; and system-wide management improvements, through a range of capacity building efforts.

With regard to the concept of participatory development, the PEDP directs the school committees to promote the public /private sector partnerships at the community level. Likewise, the Local Government Authorities (LGAs) at district level should involve the meaningful participation of all community stakeholders in planning and implementation

processes. Most importantly, the PEDP specifically documents the importance of involving Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and other Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) in provision of quality primary education. According to PEDP (URT 2001:22a), the responsibilities of NGOs and other CSOs are:

1. To participate effectively in planning, implementing and monitoring activities at all levels that support PEDP and ESDP objectives.
2. To participate as a joint stakeholder in the annual ESDP process of reviewing the education sector, including the primary and non formal educational programmes.
3. To contribute their experience and knowledge, as well as human, financial, technical and material resources to the improvement and provision of primary education.
4. To share information with, and facilitate meaningful community participation in primary and non-formal education.
5. To effectively collect and communicate educational information from and to schools, communities, government, and other stakeholders.
6. To conduct education policy analysis and advocacy

It should be pointed out that, with the above extensive responsibilities of CSOs, the URT seems to be on the right track towards the active participation of civil society in management and administration of education. However, it is the analysis of what really happened in the period of PEDP (2002-2006) which can fairly judge the credibility of PEDP stakeholders' participation initiative. The analysis of PEDP stakeholders' involvement initiative, among other initiatives, is presented in the results and discussion chapter.

4.5 THE BASIC EDUCATION MASTER PLAN

The Basic Education master Plan (BEMP) was formulated in 1996 and revised in 2001. Translated from the 1995 education and training policy, the BEMP which is also part of the ESDP initiative has four major issues of concern namely; basic education access and equity, quality of basic education, management and administration, and financing of basic education (URT, 2001b). The BEMP areas of concern are pre-primary education, primary education, non-formal and adult basic literacy, and post primary vocational training. The BEMP also serves as a URT government positive response towards

international commitments like the “World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA)” of 1990 convened in Jomtien. The WCEFA in addition to calling for universal access to schooling for all children reaffirms that every person – child, youth and adult – should be able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet their basic learning needs. Most importantly, the WCEFA calls for effective participation of all education stakeholders to improve both the quantitative and qualitative aspects of education.

The BEMP intended to raise the enrolment ratio of primary school-age children and improve the internal efficiency of basic education by raising the gross enrolment rate of 77% to 95% by 2005, among others. On the question of management and administration of basic education, BEMP intends to consolidate the efforts of local communities and NGOs in opening more schools, especially more pre-primary schools so as in so doing help formalise pre-primary education. Furthermore, the BEMP intends to enhance quality of basic education by, among other measures, upgrading the academic and pedagogical skills of teachers, improving school infrastructure and increase the supply of teaching and learning materials. With reference to adult education, the BEMP spells out that adult literacy programmes will be improved through community based literacy programmes, expanding vocational training and training opportunities for out-of-school children and youths.

In what may be seen as putting into practice of major components and objectives of the BEMP, the Tanzanian community has witnessed several basic education projects being implemented. These include, among others, the District Based Support to Primary Education (DBSPE), Primary Education Facilities Project (PEDFAC), Community Education Fund (CEF), Integrated Community Based Adult Education (ICBAE), Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET), and Education II Project. The COBET in particular, was devised to cater for children who could not be fitted in PEDP initiative of increasing enrolments at the legal age of entry (7 years) and control drop-outs and repetitions. The COBET therefore, was devised to cater for the education for over-aged (8 to 18 years) children. The main objective of COBET has been to enable the out-

of school children acquire competencies in reading, writing, numeracy, life and survival skills in a rather shortest time possible (URT, 2001b).

With regard to management and administration of programmes, the BEMP capitalises on the decentralization policy and devolution of power, a move towards a bottom-up approach to management. In addition, the plan aims at promoting the participation of other education providers, i.e. parents and communities, NGOs and private investors so as to guarantee success in the projected expansion of the basic education.

4.6 CONCLUSION

The United Republic of Tanzania (URT) has since independence kept on formulating and reforming the policies on education to suit the circumstances of a given period of time. Arguably, the trend of URT educational policies and reforms shows that there is a shift from a popular top-down to a mixture of top-down and bottom-up systems of educational management and administration. For instance, the 1967 Education for Self-Reliance (ESR) policy was influenced and written by the first president of URT, the late Julius K. Nyerere. In recent URT educational policies and reforms, as the former minister of education and culture Joseph Mungai notes (URT, 2001a: I), a significant number of education stakeholders have been involved.

‘Many stakeholders have been involved at different stages in the formulation of this plan [ESDP]. Several technical working groups, which drew members from a variety of stakeholder groups, as well as consultative meetings amongst the sector ministries, contributed greatly to the formulation of an overall plan framework for the development of primary education’.

Though the move towards stakeholders’ involvement is welcome, it is important to think of how stakeholders are identified and (assuming the right stakeholders are identified) are they given enough space to air their views and are their ideas taken into consideration? (Refer section 2.3.1). A discussion on these questions plus other aspects related to

educational policies and reforms narrated in this chapter is presented in Chapter five of this study.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.0 INTRODUCTION.

It should be recalled that the main focus of this study is to examine the extent, quality and effects of stakeholders' participation in management (planning, monitoring and evaluation) of CSOs basic educational projects. Furthermore, the study aims at assessing the role played by the URT government in coordinating the functioning of CSOs involved in provision and or support of basic education. In this chapter, as the title implies, the field work data (results) is described, analysed and discussed. The field work data referred here comes from interviews and documents from both the URT government and the two basic educational projects in Dar es Salaam and Mbeya. In Dar es Salaam, the project is concerned with support of learning materials to public primary schools. The kinds of schools involved are those that manage to meet the conditions set by this particular Civil Society Organisation. On the other hand another project with headquarters in Mbeya city while other offices and operations are in the rural areas, provides basic education to peasants with the goal of improving food security in the three districts of Mbeya region (refer section 3.3.2.2).

The organisation of the chapter is divided into two broad categories namely: management of CSOs basic educational projects and the URT government stakeholders' participation initiatives and her relationship with CSOs in provision and / or support of basic education. It should be pointed out that since this study is influenced by the phenomenological theory, efforts are made to briefly describe the phenomenon before the second-order constructs are produced.

5.1 MANAGEMENT OF CSOs BASIC EDUCATIONAL PROJECTS.

With regard to the concept of project management, as it is underlined in some of preceding chapters, the study focuses on the three major phases of project management

cycle; planning, monitoring and evaluation. Both, the Dar es Salaam and the Mbeya projects visited organise their activities basing on the three aforementioned major phases of a project cycle. Furthermore, in this study the management concept in basic education projects is dealt in conjunction with the stakeholders' participation ideology which shares some tenets with the participatory development theory and the social capital theory. To start with, the findings on management of CSOs basic educational projects are presented with reference to the question who participates. In addition to that, this part is devoted to discuss the question of 'how stakeholders participate'.

5.1.1 Planning, monitoring and evaluation in Dar es Salaam and Mbeya projects: who participates and how?

As noted earlier both basic educational projects visited embrace the stakeholders' participation ideology and in fact this was one of the conditions to be met for the project to be involved in the study. In this case, the question who participates can be reduced into which stakeholders participate?

According to the findings, both the stakeholders within the project and stakeholders from outside the project (Marilee, 2000) do participate in planning and or monitoring and or evaluation. As one senior management official at the Dar es Salaam project responded in one of the interview question that; *"We have a variety of stakeholders some are permanent like me and the rest of staff and some are hired or just volunteer themselves for a certain activity or activities of the project..."* (Interview, project staff -September, 2006). On the other hand, it was found that the Mbeya project defines a project stakeholder as any person who can influence the project development. In an attempt to reveal the Dar es Salaam project stakeholders, the following were enumerated; students, teachers, parents, different governmental officials like education inspectors, and district education officers to mention but a few.

In general, the stakeholders of the two projects visited were revealed to be, but are not limited to, the following; project staff, targeted population, external consultants, donors, government officials, members from different professional government and non-government organisations, and influential people like community and religion leaders. Though a significant number of stakeholders seem to participate in the projects, the projects did not have well established criteria for stakeholders' identification (refer section 2.3).

The fact that a variety of stakeholders do participate in management of basic educational projects dictates the need to examine which stakeholders participated at which phase of a particular project cycle. What is more, the question of how stakeholders participate is of paramount importance in conveying the whole picture of stakeholders' participation.

5.1.1.1 Planning in practice

In the Dar es Salaam project the planning phase goes through three stages. In its first stage the planning committee comprising the executive secretary, training and monitoring coordinator, administration assistant, and an accountant prepares every activity with its own budget. The second stage of planning phase involves the board members, who in principle constitute the last but one stage of planning. The board members are given the proposal from the first stage for approval. The board is composed of members including the project chairperson, vice chairperson, secretary and other nine members from different professional institutions. The proposal approved by the project board members is subject to be further approved by the donors who, in this case, have got a final say on the proposal.

In another program in Mbeya, planning for a new project starts after a baseline research. If the project is not new, evaluation of the former project is conducted. The baseline research is conducted to the targeted population by external consultants as research leaders. The program staff, target population, and other stakeholders in smaller quantities

also are involved. The findings from the baseline research or evaluation of a former project are applied in the planning exercise. The actual planning is conducted in what is called 'planning workshop' which again is organized by external consultants to avoid bias, among other things. Stakeholders who normally attend the planning workshop are like; staff, district government officials, representatives from different NGOs operating in the targeted area, and other stakeholders from different institutions like church.

5.1.1.2 Monitoring in practice

Monitoring in the Dar es Salaam project is conducted mainly by the project staff. After a reasonable number of conscientizing workshops to teachers at selected schools, the project staff members pay regular visits to schools to track down and record the project progress. In the Mbeya project alike, monitoring is mainly performed by the project staff who are assisted by the targeted population in gathering information about the progress of the project.

5.1.1.3 Evaluation in practice

Evaluation in the Dar es Salaam project is conducted after three years by an external evaluator who is recommended by the donor agency. During evaluation, among other things, the external evaluator visits schools where teachers and students are normally interviewed. The survival of the project depends much on the evaluation report from the external evaluator; bad evaluation report may result into termination of the project. On the other hand, the Mbeya project practices a relatively different approach to evaluation by having two phases of evaluation namely; semi-annual evaluation and annual evaluation. During the semi-annual evaluation the external facilitator or consultant together with a significant number of targeted population organizes a workshop that serves as a forum for assessing the project outcomes. The annual evaluation which is also referred to as final evaluation is normally conducted by consultants and it is an intensive

evaluation that takes into account many data from various sources including all documents, field visits, and presentations. The following part brings forth a discussion that takes into account different theoretical and practical aspects (from the field work data) of stakeholders' participation.

5.1.2 Mixed reflections on stakeholders' participation in projects' planning, monitoring and evaluation.

It should be pointed out that stakeholders' participation is often used to mean a number of different kinds of activity. Confusion may arise when the term is used without specifying what it means. As it was underscored earlier (refer section 2.3), participation seems to be meaningful when the participants are involved in decision-making processes and therefore significantly influencing the project. The aforementioned assertion, together with other aspects are put into consideration in the next discussion which (after a brief account on 'who participates' above) is aimed at assessing the quality and effects of stakeholders' participation.

The planning, monitoring and evaluation phases of a project are highly inter-dependent; as it was described earlier, they are referred to as linked processes especially when the project has adopted the 'managing for impact' style (IFAD, 2002). For instance, the planning phase which sets a foundation for each and every project's activity to follow, at the same time, it serves to inform every project participant's duty or duties. This assertion is supported by what Rosenau calls a golden rule of planning, that "get the persons who will do the work to plan the work. They should know more about it than anyone else. It is their task, not yours" (1998:57). With regard to Rosenau, planning ought to be conducted by those who will implement the project; in other words, those who will monitor and evaluate the project. In fact the idea of Rosenau rests in the tenets of the participatory development theory which insists on the need for stakeholders to collaborate in identification of problems but also acquire responsibility for planning, management, control and assessment of the collective measures seen as necessary for their own

development (Burkey 1993, Chambers 1997). Furthermore, the trust developed as a result of cooperation and social cohesion stands a chance of facilitating the growth of social capital (refer section 2.4).

According to the results of this study, stakeholders' participation in planning, monitoring and evaluation of projects registered a relatively different experience from what Rosenau (*ibid.*) and participatory development theory asserts. For instance, in what may be perceived as attaching different value to different phases of a project cycle, the number of stakeholders' participation in both Dar es Salaam and Mbeya projects significantly differed, some phases especially the planning phase involved more stakeholders than monitoring and evaluation. In addition to that, the participation of more senior project management stakeholders especially in the Dar es Salaam project (refer section 5.1.1.1) shows the importance they attach to the planning phase as compared to other phases. However, it was learnt that the high importance attached to the planning phase does not guarantee achievement of the intended objectives at the end of the project especially when there is poor linkage between the planning phase and other subsequent phases. For instance, while the Mbeya project can be commended for having an initiative of involving a significant number of stakeholders from the planning phase in the monitoring phase, it was learnt that in the Dar es Salaam project, neither the teachers nor the monitoring data collection staff (who together were active participants in the monitoring phase), had a chance to participate in the planning phase. As a result, some degree of uncertainty on how some of things are conducted was observed. As one teacher narrated that;

“The procedures teachers are supposed to follow to make items and sell to the project are unknown. The project staff from the project headquarters have been collecting our items in the name of going to approve and after that get some money as a payment for our work, to our surprise no item, no money, no nothing comes back. We do not know what happens to our items, and this is because we were just told to prepare items, we never sat down altogether to discuss the best ways to go about. This has discouraged teachers from making other items”.
(Interview, project teacher A – September 2006)

It was further learnt that In the Dar es Salaam project for instance, apart from the fact that many stakeholders participate in the early stages of the planning phase, the donors have a

final say on what is previously planned by other stakeholders. In this case the donors' intervention at the end of the planning phase negates the whole idea of stakeholders' participation, for in reality are the donors who make decisions and not the key stakeholders. As it was underscored earlier (refer section 2.2) all three project cycle phases referred in this study are quite important for the given project to reap the intended objectives. Furthermore, the inter-dependency that exists between the project cycle phases needs, among other things, an orchestrated perpetual participation of key stakeholders or the availing the information on key theories and practices of the project cycle to all stakeholders. Nevertheless, if the participation of key stakeholders is tokenistic in a sense that it does not involve them into decision-making processes (as the case of donors' intervention above), the whole idea of key stakeholders' participation is threatened to turn less important.

With regard to participatory development theory, the need to involve primary beneficiaries in development initiatives is of vital importance. This is due to the fact that it is the primary beneficiaries who know better their problems and not the outside experts. Based on the empirical evidence, Chambers (1997:179) asserts that;

“Professionals and local people also differ more generally in their values and experiences. What local people, especially the poor, want and need is often not what they are thought by professionals to want and need, or what professionals themselves want”.

Chambers' assertion was observed to be supported by the Mbeya project, as one of the senior project staff commented that;

“it is important to involve primary stakeholders, in fact we have been advocating this ideology for sometime now, simply because we know its practically impossible to initiate a sound project in a new environment without the involvement of people who know better their environment”. (Interview- Mbeya project official – September 2006).

In an attempt to compare the primary stakeholders participation in the Mbeya and Dar es Salaam projects it was learnt that the Mbeya project involves the targeted population in the baseline research as well as in other project cycle phases, though with limited power

to make decisions. This to some extent shows the project's awareness of how important is local knowledge in the development initiatives. Generally, the findings suggest that projects that involve adults as primary stakeholders like that of Mbeya tend to be more concerned with their participation than projects in which children (students) are the primary stakeholders. For instance, Lansdown (2005) argues that young children are perceived as passive recipients of adults' care and protection. This proved to be true with the Dar es Salaam project where students who in reality are the main project beneficiaries never participated in any decision making process. In this case students are regarded as mere followers of what their project teachers instruct them, the situation that hinders expression of their views. It was further revealed that, in the Dar es Salaam project even teachers do participate in seminars and workshops in which they air their views but final decisions remain in hands of the project staff from headquarters.

“The seminars and workshops organized by the project are attended by numerous members from various schools that are in the project. Six project teachers from our school who were chosen by the head teacher have been attending. It is unfortunate that students and other teachers have never participated. During the workshops, the project officials from headquarters give lectures before group discussions and lastly presentations from the groups follows. Frankly speaking, we have a room to speak out but the decisions are more or less made by officials from project headquarters themselves.” (Interview, Dar es Salaam project teacher – September 2006).

The findings of Makuwira (2004) who conducted a study on Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and participatory development in basic education in Malawi are in-line with the findings of this study documented above. Makuwira (2004:121) reported that;

“Monitoring and evaluation for the organisation rested heavily not on the direct beneficiaries (the students) but rather on the other members of the community who form part of the village committees. Almost all the students who were interviewed admitted having taken no part in the monitoring and evaluation, that is, actively participating in ascertaining what is going on, how the program is progressing and what needs to be done”.

With regard to whether stakeholders' participation is meaningful or not, in the Mbeya project alike the use of external consultants in the planning phase, who in actual fact

never participates in the subsequent phases, seems to dilute the whole idea of having stakeholders speak for themselves. Though the reason given for the use of external consultants in the planning phase was to avoid bias, later it was learnt that the fear of bias prevailed because of the biased stakeholders' identification procedures that led into unequal representation of stakeholders from various project interest groups. Admitting on allegations that most NGOs are town based and led by the elite (Shivji, 2003) a senior official at the Mbeya project stated that; *"it is true that most NGOs are town based and led by the elite, in fact most NGOs use the targeted population to pass their views, they dominate the targeted population"* (Interview, project staff –September 2006). It was further revealed that the involvement of more members from the targeted population is limited by the scarce financial resources (refer section 5.2.2 below) necessary to empower them.

The importance of stakeholders' participation in the evaluation phase in the Dar es Salaam project seemed to be down graded by the fact that the decision making process is fully made by the external evaluator. Likewise, in the Mbeya project evaluation is potentially done by the consultants due to the fact that project stakeholders that participate in the initial phases of evaluation have no say to the consultants who document the findings in the final phase of evaluation. Though the use of external consultants may come along with a number of advantages like new evaluation skills to the on going project that may lead into an improved project, it is also known to bring unrest between the project participants and the evaluator especially when the evaluation report determines the continuation or dis-continuation of funding. Cases such as the project staff regarding the external evaluator as their enemy followed by poor cooperation in the search of evaluation data are documented (Weiss, 1998).

It was further found that both the Mbeya and Dar es Salaam projects depend heavily on financing from donors. Donor-financing especially at the beginning of the project or in the whole life of the project may be considered worthwhile when financing is done without conditions that may hinder growth of the project. Enumerating one of the challenges facing the Mbeya project, one project staff said;

“Sometimes donors have conditions that are difficult to implement or simply do not fit with the reality of the project environment, but since they [donors] are our major source of finance we have no other option but to accept the funds regardless of how impractical are the conditions attached to it”.
(Interview, Mbeya Project staff- September 2006).

What is more, project external funding sources are not guaranteed to exist for the whole project lifespan. The external sources more often than not tend to be of limited duration in such a way that project long term planning becomes impossible (Clayton et al. 2000). Miller-Grandvaux et al. (2002: 35), following their study conducted in Mali and Ethiopia documented that:

“NGOs take risks, however, when they depend on donors to help push their policy agenda. On one hand, it reinforces the perspective of government and others that the NGOs are an extension of donors, rather than independent actors pursuing their own objectives. On the other, donors can be fickle and may abandon an NGO if their interests shift”.

Attempts like that of the Dar es Salaam project to involve project stakeholders in finance generating activities (done in their own private time) can actually be a solution against the risks associated with donor-dependency. In this Dar es Salaam initiative, the project stakeholders make professional items that are supposed to be sold to the project. Nevertheless, as it was previously noted, this initiative was found to be not well coordinated. The procedures used to approve the items before they are officially bought remains in the hands of the senior project officials. Consequently, this discourages the project stakeholders to make more items. What is more, this impairs the trust between the senior project staff and other project stakeholders who produce items.

The fact that the survival of a project like that of Dar es Salaam depends much on the whether the donors are pleased by the evaluation report does not negate the above findings by Miller-Grandvaux and his fellows. What is tricky at least for the Dar es Salaam project is the act of using an external evaluator who is recommended by the donor agency. Since it is the external evaluator and not any other stakeholder who has got a final say on what it is documented in the evaluation report, chances are high for the external evaluator to manoeuvre with the report in favour of the donors' fickleness. The question that one may ask is; should the stakeholders trust the report of the external

evaluator? From what this study found, the project management circumstances show that even if the stakeholders doubt about the integrity of the report, they do have limited chances to appeal.

Nevertheless, what can be seen as one of the major problems of donor-dependency is when the conditions from donors dominate the project environment and tend to negatively affect stakeholders' independence in decision making. Some of the negative effects include that of stakeholders participating in the project just to follow what the donors decide: In fact, it may turn to be a risky game for the less empowered and poor stakeholders like project staff to speak against their daily source of bread, the donor. The observed hesitation of some of the Dar es Salaam and Mbeya projects staff to participate in the interview, their insistence on anonymity, the act of not releasing most of the projects documents, and the tendency not to speak completely on some project's affairs, though it was their right, to some extent revealed that the project staff especially the junior ones are preoccupied with fear of losing their daily bread. As a result, even in chances that the junior project staff are involved in planning, monitoring and evaluation; their participation may be considered to be tokenistic. In view of the fact that to larger extent the decision-making power is within the hands of the donors and senior project management officials, participation of the junior project staff may be claimed to serve nothing but a way to pass their (donors and seniors) pre-determined objectives and / or achieve their own goals (Keough 1998, Makuwira 2004 and Miller-Grandvaux et al. 2002).

With regard to Paulo Freire's theory on education of illiterates which is based on the belief that every human being, no matter how 'ignorant' or submerged in the 'culture of silence' is capable of looking critically at his world and he has the potential of dealing with it if empowered (Long, 2001), this study found that both the Dar es Salaam and Mbeya projects are fully aware of the importance of capacity building for the maximum and effective participation of the stakeholders and that capacity building is a long-term, continuing process, in which all stakeholders are supposed to participate. In view of the fact that capacity building involves, but is not limited to, the following; human resource

development, the process of equipping individuals with the understanding, skills and access to information, knowledge and training that enables them to perform effectively (Burkey 1993, Chambers 1997, Long 2001 and Miller-Grandvaux et al. 2002), it was further found that the needs for capacity building are always changing and there are no ready-made solutions that can serve for the whole project lifespan due to the constant changing world of globalization.

Consequently, the projects revealed that due to financial constraints they can not afford all costs associated with capacity building initiatives, leaving a significant number of potential stakeholders not participating or participating poorly in the management of the project. For instance in the Dar es Salaam project, although the senior project staff claimed that members of communities surrounding project schools are stakeholders of the project, it was found that most of the community members have no records of even visiting the project. In this case the assertion that active involvement of the community [stakeholders] facilitates the identification of community-specific education issues and the effective strategies to address them (refer section 2.3) was seen to be accorded with less importance. Additionally, the notion that community participation serves as a strategy to identify and mobilize resources within a community, as well as build consensus and support for the education programs was found to be not the case in Dar es Salaam project. Unlike in the Dar es Salaam project, in the Mbeya project community participation serves as one way of mobilizing resources since the targeted population is involved in doing some of the projects activities and therefore, among other benefits, reduce some costs the project could have incurred. Nevertheless, the idea to involve community members in doing some of the project activities especially when they are not actively involved in decision-making can be regarded as an act of people manipulation.

With reference to social capital, most of the stakeholders' participation controversies discussed above seemed in one way or the other to affect the growth of social capital. Aspects like that of a significant number of potential stakeholders not and or participating poorly in project planning, monitoring and evaluation, and the lack of stakeholders perpetual participation in all project cycles phases can be argued to be a threat to

projects' social capital growth. In the Dar es Salaam project for instance, it was found that there is less social cohesion, collective action and cooperation (which according to Dudwick et al. (2006) (refer section 2.4) are dimensions of social capital) between teachers in project and teachers not in the project. As one teacher narrated that;

“Thanks to our head teacher for his good leadership style, he has reduced the tension that existed between teachers in the project and teachers not in the project, in the past we used to receive no cooperation from teachers not in the project. However, the situation is still bad in other project schools where teachers in the project receive poor cooperation from the rest of teachers”. Interview, Dar es Salaam project teacher – September 2006).

As mentioned earlier, the fact that most of the key project stakeholders do not participate in all project cycle phases' dictates the use of other ways to inform the key stakeholders on what transpired in phases they did not participate. However, it was learnt that the expected communication mechanism does not operate sufficiently due to, among other obstacles, financial constraints. In addition, financial constraints were observed to be responsible for the hindrance of stakeholders' empowerment and as a result most of the key stakeholders are ill-informed about the project. When asked what he will do if given a top project management position, one Mbeya project staff responded;

“I will invest more on capacity building, and this will involve pumping information more to the downwards, to inform the target population so that they become active participants. We have not done enough on making our target population aware of what the project is all about” Interview, Mbeya project staff – September 2006.

It was further learnt that, both the downward flows of information from the policy realm and upward flows from the local level are critical components for the project to excel. Above all, an open dialogue about the project development apart from fostering the sharing of knowledge and exchange of ideas, it inculcates the sense of project ownership which in turn leads to collective action. Contrary to open dialogue, secrecy may result in suspicion and distrust. Therefore, enhancing dissemination of information may facilitate the growth of social capital by building trust and cohesion. As such, the presence of relatively poor project information sharing in both the Dar es Salaam and Mbeya project was seen to be a threat for the social capital to flourish.

5.2 THE URT GOVERNMENT STAKEHOLDERS' PARTICIPATION INITIATIVES AND HER RELATIONSHIP WITH CSOs IN PROVISION AND / OR SUPPORT OF BASIC EDUCATION.

5.2.1 Introduction.

This part is devoted to describe and discuss various theories and practices of stakeholders' participation during and after the marathon reign of more than twenty years of Mwalimu Julius Nyerere. In the period after Nyerere, also referred to as the current URT, issues which affect the efficacy of CSOs, the attainment of governments' basic education provision initiatives, and collaboration between CSOs and the public sector are discussed.

The major educational policies and reforms described earlier (refer chapter four) shows that the United Republic of Tanzania (URT) government is fully aware of the importance of Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) in provision and or support of social services. Additionally, the formulation and enactment of the National Policy on Non-Governmental Organisations (NPNGO) of 2001 and the Non-Governmental Act of 2002 respectively, are an indication of the URT government awareness to the rapid growing civil society organisations movement in Tanzania. The overall objective of the NPNGO is to create an enabling environment for the NGOs to operate effectively and efficiently in the social and economic transformation of the country. In fact, the NPNGO serves a need to enhance self-regulation, transparency and accountability of NGOs and establish modalities for interaction between NGOs and the state and between NGOs and other stakeholders. Furthermore among other things, the NPNGO gives an operational definition of a Non-Governmental Organisation that states that;

“An NGO is a voluntary grouping of individuals or organizations which is autonomous and not-for-profit sharing; organized locally at the grassroots level, nationally or internationally for the purpose of enhancing the legitimate economic, social and /or cultural development or lobbying or advocacy on issues of public interest or interest of a group of individuals or organizations” (URT 2001c: 5).

The NPNGO, among other things, gives an impression that in the URT NGOs are the types of civil society associations that are somewhat given special attention as compared to other types of civil society organisations or associations. However, there are also chances that the URT treats CSOs and NGOs as synonyms, the concept which Clayton et al. (2000) are against and refers to it as analytical mistake. Clayton et al. (2000) further assert that the NGO sector (as compared to other CSOs) in most developing countries is formally organised and often subject to certain government regulations, and has developed considerable capacity and experience in the delivery of development projects. Indeed, this may be the reason for equating NGOs with CSOs.

With regard to the state-CSOs partnership, the NPNGO stresses the need for the URT government to work together with CSOs and other stakeholders in development initiatives. The NPNGO reads;

“The Government of Tanzania recognizes the need to work together with NGOs and the need for such cooperation to extend to other key players, including funders, disadvantaged people themselves, other sectors of civil society and the wider public”.

In a move to strengthen NGOs, the URT government is has promised through NPNGO to continue to exempt NGOs from tax under existing tax laws. Apart from the NPNGO, the Non-Governmental Act of 2002 enacted by the parliament of the URT, documents the legal framework about Non-Governmental Organizations with a view to coordinate and regulate activities of Non-Governmental Organizations but also cater for related matters.

5.2.2 Stakeholders' participation during the reign of Mwalimu Julius Nyerere.

The fact that in recent years the URT government has devised and documented the concept of stakeholders' participation in various policy documents, development plans and acts do not mean the concept is completely new. Initiatives to involve people in decision making prevailed even in Mwalimu Julius Nyerere's era, Nyerere insisted that "People cannot be developed; they can only develop themselves by participation in decision and co-operative activities which affect their well-being" (Nyerere, 1968; cited in Prokopy et al, 1999:213). Furthermore, as it was briefed earlier (refer section 4.2) in his education for self reliance theory, Nyerere underscored that education system should produce outspoken and free citizens, he was against the educational system that produced 'robots' who work hard but never question their leaders. It is important to point out that the tenets of education for self reliance became to be part and parcel of the URT education system and therefore affected almost every Tanzanian.

What seems to be contentious with regard to Mwalimu Nyerere is the question of whether he himself involved people in various development initiatives he spearheaded. For instance, if one studies the Arusha declaration policy booklet in which the education for self-reliance is documented, precise explanations of how the policy was formulated are missing. In fact it is known that it is Mwalimu Nyerere who wrote the education for self reliance policy booklet (Lwaitama in Galabawa and Närman, 2004) the missing information is whether other people participated or contributed ideas somehow. This gives an impression that the education for self reliance policy, which was implemented throughout the URT, was to larger extent influenced or completely devised by Mwalimu Julius Nyerere alone. Mwalimu Nyerere (as a URT supreme leader) was supposed to be a role model in practicing the participation principles he preached, he instead (as noted above) dominated the education for self reliance policy formulation. Though the reasons for not involving various education stakeholders is not mentioned, his domination may have in one way or the other contributed for some failures of the policy.

On the other hand, the idea of not involving stakeholders in policy formulation does not necessarily mean that the resultant policy will not put into consideration the genuine needs or desires of people. It follows that, if a policy formulation skips people, apart from the genuine needs it contains, it may be prone to experience a negative or poor reception by the stakeholders during the implementation processes (Burkey 1993, Chambers 1997, Long 2001): It takes efforts to inform and educate stakeholders for them to realize that the policy is in favour of their needs. In addition, if it happens that the policy was implemented without incorporating stakeholders ideas and as a result the project failed to excel, it is imperative for those in power to be transparent and able to inform the ‘skipped people’ what exactly transpired. However, for political reasons this may not happen but rather the ‘skipped people’ may find themselves referred to as part of the problem. This is what may be translated to as rhetoric nature of those who in one way or the other have the capacity to promote stakeholders’ participation in government initiatives, the leaders. For instance, Nyerere used plural forms like ‘we’ when it came to the point of speaking about policy failure even though the whole education for self reliance policy formulation was single-handed by him. Kassam (1994:4) observes that;

“Many of the problems that Nyerere addressed in an attempt to transform the education system and educational policies still persist. Even during the peak of socialist construction, Nyerere himself made the following admission: ‘I am becoming increasingly convinced that **we in Tanzania** either have not yet found the right educational policy, or have not yet succeeded in implementing it or some combination of these two alternatives’”(my bold).

It is worth pointing out that in the time of Mwalimu Nyerere’s reign the Arusha declaration was launched. This Arusha Declaration of 1967, among other things, advocated the African socialist movement of Ujamaa (family hood) which sought to bring all independent, productive and private organizations under the control of state. In that material time the once autonomous associations were rendered less autonomous by being co-opted and brought under the then only political party, the ruling party Chama Cha Mapinduzi (CCM). Despite this, autonomous associations were not encouraged during this period; thus participation was possible only through the state apparatus (Mercer 1999). Under these circumstances of participation without being autonomous, the emphasis of Mwalimu Nyerere on the importance for people to participate in

decision-making qualifies to be regarded as less-effective. However, what is important is for the URT government to learn the past policy failures for the sake of improving the current and future policy formulation and implementation initiatives.

5.2.3 Stakeholders' participation after the reign of Mwalimu Julius Nyerere and the relationship between state and CSOs.

According to Mercer (1999) the concept of having autonomous CSOs in URT is recent in the sense that organizations within 'civil society' were effectively discouraged between the mid-1960s and the mid-1980s. This change has essentially been brought on by the processes of economic and political liberalization that took place in the mid-1980s, in response to the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank (WB) conditions attached to the agreement of a Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). It is the Education and Training Policy (ETP) of 1995 that officially declared the shift from policy emphases of the 1960s to the 1980s, which placed strong reliance on government control of the economy and the public sector, to the policy emphases of liberalization of social services provision.

With regard to the coordination of CSOs (NGOs), which formerly was under the Vice President's Office, was transferred to the Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children (MCDGC) in 2006. In the MCDGC, the national NGOs coordination board is established and works under the secretariatship of the director of NGOs coordination division to advise the minister on NGOs issues and perform duties as stipulated in the Non-Governmental Act of 2002 (URT 2001c, URT 2002). In coordinating NGOs involved in provision of basic education, it was found that the MCDGC cooperates with the ministry responsible for basic education, the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT). The move of NGOs involved in the provision of basic education being coordinated by two ministries was seen to have no serious effects except that it may take long time for the particular NGOs to register in both ministries. On the other hand both two officials from MoEVT who were interviewed by this study were found to

be un-aware of the existence of any policy concerning the NGOs. The MoEVT officials' un-awareness of NPNGO can be interpreted to be due to the presence of little inter-dependency between the two ministries, MCDGC and MoEVT. In fact the kind of cooperation is more or less limited to the time of registration where a given CSO that intends to operate a school will have to satisfy the conditions of both ministries for it to get registered. Thereafter the monitoring of schools run by CSOs becomes the sole responsibility of the MoEVT under its schools inspectorate unit.

With reference to the conditions for registration, what was seen to be a challenge to the NGOs which plans to run a school, was to meet the conditions set by the MoEVT for opening a school. One among the challenging conditions the interviewees revealed to this study was; an area plus its sketch map of not less than five acres before a permit is granted to erect buildings. If it happens that one meets the first condition, a series of other conditions to pave a way for quality education provision follows. However, though the conditions are applicable to both public and private schools, it was learnt that in most cases the conditions are not met and it is even worse when it comes to public schools as it was narrated by one district education officer that;

“In reality I do not know what goes wrong, education is not isolated rather it is just like all other sectors, the police and the like, one can see many ill-vehicles on their way apart from the fact that there are laws that do not allow cars not in good order to be in traffic. Both public and private schools never 100% meets the conditions, and if I were to compare between the government run and CSOs run schools, the CSOs run schools are much better especially in terms of facilities”
Interview- district education officer, October 2006.

Commenting on the issue of conditions to be met before a school is allowed to operate, one senior member of the Dar es Salaam zonal inspectorate office tended to conceal the reality by saying in most cases the CSOs meet the conditions. However, this study was not satisfied and decided to present before him some representative examples of Dar es Salaam city schools operating in areas that in no way can be five acres, he admitted that those private schools got registration in conditions of corruption. It was found that the Education and Training Policy (ETP) initiative of priority land allocation to CSOs (refer section 4.3) is almost not practical in urban areas like Dar es Salaam city where reserved open places for schools are simply not there mainly due to poor city development plans.

Furthermore, it was learnt that under normal circumstances, if the school fails to meet the conditions it is supposed to be closed or phased out. Nevertheless, these kinds of penalty were found to be possible to a CSO or a private school and not to a public school. In reality school inspectors put more emphasis to CSOs run schools (for them to meet the conditions) as compared to the public run schools. The reasons behind this was learnt to be associated with cross checking the financial sustainability and credibility of CSOs to run schools lest the citizens loose their time and money in schools that are prone to last for a short period of time.

It was further found that, political reasons tend to limit the school inspectors to exercise their power to public schools for in doing so they will be acting against their employer, the MoEVT and the URT government at large.

“The [school] inspectors seem to pay more attention to private schools as compared to government schools though they are not directed to do so. It is not because of their personal interests, but due to political pressure. For instance, in 2006 the URT prime minister promised the URT public that 80% of students that will score A, B or C grades in their primary education final examination will have to be accommodated in government schools. Under these conditions even the school inspectors fail to make sure that all conditions are met before the school starts, for they will be perceived to be against their boss, the Prime Minister”.
Interview- district education officer, October 2006.

Consequently, there are three groups of schools that can be identified with reference to whether conditions are met or not; the private and public schools that meet the conditions, private schools that do not meet the conditions but operate illegally under the influence of corruption, and public schools that do not meet the conditions but continue to operate with a hope that once the government economy flourishes the schools will be improved. In other words the URT government is not doing its expected role model function for the CSOs to follow up, instead a significant number of CSOs run schools (as the interview response above reveals) have been taking the role model function.

Regarding sustainability issues, it is asserted that one of the critical issues facing CSOs is the sustainability of service provision because they are usually dependent on grants and contracts, whereas the state is able to generate a basic level of funding from taxation

(Clayton et al. 2000). As it was briefed earlier (refer section 4.1.2) the situation in the URT differs from what Clayton et al. above asserts. The URT government through MKUKUTA policy document admits that her economy remains vulnerable to high aid dependency, the same to what is happening to CSOs. Baker (2002) found that, a majority of the organizations are urban based and there is a tendency for many of these NGOs to focus their work in sectors or areas where the donor community has a significant interest. For example, the study by Lange *et al.* (2000) apart from finding that most NGOs are urban and elite based, they also found that many NGOs in Tanzania are within the fields of health and the environment due to the influx of foreign aid in these areas.

With regard to the question of CSOs distribution, the findings of Baker (*ibid*) and Lange (*ibid*) were found to match with the findings of this study, that most of the CSOs involved in provision of basic education in the URT are located in urban areas. For instance, according to the year 2006 records from the MCDGC availed to this study, the percentage of NGOs that operate in Dar es Salaam only was found to be almost half (47%) of the total registered NGOs working in education sector in mainland Tanzania. This situation may be perceived as a move by CSOs involved in provision of basic education to search for more customers. Commenting on the distribution of CSOs involved in support and or provision of basic education, the senior member of the Dar es Salaam zonal inspectorate office said *“Since most of CSOs are commercial oriented they are active in city centres, in fact this goes without saying... they are town based to get more customers and this is what makes some of them strong financially* (Interview, September 2006). The fact that most CSOs are urban and elite based implies that the majority of rural Tanzanians are not reached by the services provided by CSOs. Nevertheless, it was found that neither the NPNGO nor the Non-Governmental Act of 2002 is concerned with coordination of the distribution of CSOs (or NGOs for that matter) in the URT.

Looking at the policy formulation initiatives, the difference between policy formulation during the reign of Mwalimu Nyerere and the current URT is that; in spite of the current URT government realizing the importance of stakeholders’ participation in policy

formulation just the same as Nyerere did, at least it is documented that stakeholders have been involved in formulating some policies or development plans in the Current URT. A typical example is that of the Education Sector Development Plan (ESDP) (refer to section 4.6). However, what remains a puzzle here is the question of the quality of stakeholders and the nature of participation, is it an active participation? It takes an assessment of stakeholders identification strategies used plus scrutiny of the participation process itself for one to answer the puzzle, the task which unfortunately was not covered by this study. In what may render the URT be regarded as inconsistent in making theory into practice, is the fact that though the concept of stakeholders' participation is widely acknowledged, it is not practised in all important policy implementation initiatives.

The study entitled *poverty reduction in Tanzania: searching for basic education intervention model* by Mushi et al. documented in Galabawa and Nārman (2004) found that the Integrated Community Based Adult Education (ICBAE)⁵ did register some failures because of, among other factors, the programme was developed without adequate consultation with the targeted communities. The report further underscores that;

“Since different people participate in programmes for different reasons, which may not reflect communities' interest, mutual agreement on learning priorities is necessary to eliminate the gap between participants and government expectations” Mushi et al. in Galabawa and Nārman (2004:266).

Even in development of initiatives like decentralization policy which, among other things, intend to increase participation of people at lower levels of governance, the level of stakeholders' participation is reported to be weak. The study conducted by Lexow et al. (2001) revealed that only few stakeholders (university professors and ministry employees) participated in the early stages of the planning processes of decentralization policy. This implies that all interests of other stakeholders simply went un-heard, and even the interests of the few stakeholders were heard in the early stages only. Additionally, what makes the whole decentralization policy initiative even more

⁵ Programme that was designed by the URT government to increase the access to quality and sustainable basic education for adults and out-of-school youths, through a development of a learner- centred and community based learning approach.

ambiguous is the fact that, according to the same report by Lexow et al (*ibid*), the policy was to conform to conditions imposed by donors.

As it was briefed earlier, the ETP of 1995 call for the creation of true partnership between the state and other education providers can be said to be a commended move by the URT towards the provision of quality education but also meet the access to education demands. In principle, the ETP opened the door for other education stakeholders to involve in provision and or support of education. The Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) which is both informed by ETP and a mother programme for Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP) put forward some key statements in relation to the participation of stakeholders in education, basic education for that matter, like; to effectively collect and communicate educational information from and to schools, communities, government, and other stakeholders. Furthermore the ESDP underlines the need for CSOs to conduct education policy analysis and advocacy (refer section 4.4 for the rest of statements).

According to this study, it was found that both CSOs involved in the study consider the government officials as one of their key stakeholders for them to excel. Likewise, the government officials interviewed admitted that CSOs have so far been significantly contributing to the URT government targets of raising the quality and increasing access to basic education. Specifically, the government was learnt to be pleased with the Dar es Salaam project achievements to the extent of using the schools in project for ‘show’ to official visitors that visit the ministry. Nevertheless, it was learnt that the government individual officials accord the state-CSO relationship with less-value. For example, the interviewees in Dar es Salaam project were not satisfied with the kind of cooperation they receive from the ministry officials. One Dar es Salaam project staff said “*the ministry officials’ participation in our programs is so weak, they never appear in our meetings*” Interview, September (2006). Another senior member of the Dar es Salaam project further described the cooperation between the project and ministry officials as unsatisfactory. He commented that “*ministry officials do not cooperate well with us especially when we visit the ministry headquarters for various purposes; they feel*

jealousy thinking that the project officials are rich” Interview, September (2006). In the Mbeya project, it was reported that their cooperation with state is good, a condition that may have reached due to the nature of the activities that do not require them to contact the ministry officials often as it is case with the Dar es Salaam project.

In addition to that, the joint review of the PEDP by Mushi et al. (2003) is one of the major evaluations of PEDP conducted in its lifespan i.e. 2002- 2006. This evaluation was conducted in 2003 the second year of PEDP implementation. The evaluation, among other terms of reference, found a very effective Information Education Communication (IEC) strategies adopted by basic education stakeholders like NGOs and CBOs. Examples of NGOs that had excelled according to the report are HAKIELIMU, KULEANA, and WORLD VISION etc. Apart from the positive response of CSOs, the environment for CSOs to participate fully in policy analysis and advocacy as the ESDP requires is questionable. For instance, just two years after the joint review of PEDP commended HAKIELIMU and other NGOs (refer above), in 2005 the then Ministry of Education and Culture issued a circular prohibiting HAKIELIMU from undertaking studies and publishing any articles regarding Tanzanian schools. This was after HAKIELIMU published a report (which was entirely based on government reviews) assessing three years of progress of PEDP against its targets. The circular ignited a wide public debate in which many stood in favour of HAKIELIMU (HAKIELIMU, 2007). This may be translated to be one of the features of governments that aim at hiding the public information that is thought to be potential to tarnish the government political image. What is more, this gives an impression that, good policies can simply be breached when it comes to protection of political interests by those in power.

With reference to social capital, as it was noted earlier (refer section 2.4) that social capital is constructed when governments have a supportive policy framework that is perceived to be in synchrony with the people’s social and educational agendas. But also, the study have found that the URT government education policies underscore the importance of stakeholders’ participation in policy formulation (refer chapter four). It follows that, if the stakeholders participate in policy formulation, as discussed above, the

resultant policy is more likely to be in synchrony with the people's social and educational agendas. Therefore, it takes a political will but also policy relevance to the needs of the stakeholders for them to actively participate. However, it was learnt that with the current URT relatively weak participation of stakeholders in policy formulation and policy implementations as well, the URT government's induced growth of social capital is weak. The trust that exists between government officials and CSOs can not be said to be substantial.

5.2.3 Conclusion

It is rather imperative to admit that stakeholders' participation concept is so diverse. However, briefly it can be said that while the URT government strives to embrace the stakeholders' participation concept as it can be seen in most of its policies, a number of problems, small and big, are known to affect this initiative. For instance, to fully implement the stakeholders' participation idea in basic education sector and pursue a smooth coordination of CSOs involved in provision and support of basic education, other finance generating sectors have to be effective and efficient, something that is yet to be met in a poor country like Tanzania. In fact, lack of financial sustainability is what makes the URT government obey the conditions imposed by the donors (.Lexow et al. 2001) Likewise, the CSOs are affected much by a number of problems. One of the serious problems is poor financial capacity to the extent that donors take advantage to influence decision-making in various CSOs that depend on donors to run their activities. More conclusions and recommendations are presented in the next chapter, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6:0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is devoted to present conclusions of the study but also it suggests some recommendations geared towards alleviating or eradicating the impediments of stakeholders' participation in the URT and the world of developing countries at large. It should be pointed out that, though the previous chapter has in one way or the other answered the research problem, this chapter attempts to answer the main research question⁶ of this study using the sub research questions⁷ as a guideline. The chapter starts with succinct conclusions of the extent and quality of stakeholders' participation in the Dar es Salaam and Mbeya projects, followed by conclusions about the URT government coordination function. Furthermore, the chapter gives an account of aspects that are considered challenges to effective stakeholders' participation plus some recommendations.

6.1 STAKEHOLDERS' PARTICIPATION IN DAR ES SALAAM AND MBEYA PROJECTS

⁶ What is the extent and quality of stakeholders' participation in planning, monitoring and evaluating Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) basic education projects/programs in the United Republic of Tanzania (URT)? – The question will be examined in the case of two CSOs basic education projects.

⁷ Who is planning, monitoring and evaluating basic education projects / programs in the two selected CSOs? How do the stakeholders in the two selected CSOs basic education projects participate in planning, monitoring and evaluation processes? How do the URT government coordinate the functioning of CSOs involved in provision and or support of basic education?

As far as this study is concerned, it was found that though the CSOs (Dar es Salaam and Mbeya projects) that participated in this study claim to embrace the stakeholders' participation, the extent and quality of participation is not significant. The decision-making in the three major phases of the project/ cycle in both Dar es Salaam and Mbeya projects is mainly influenced by donors and the projects' elite who occupy the senior management positions (Clayton et al. 2000, Shivji 2003). The other groups of people, which according to this study were seen to be potential key stakeholders, have limited or no room to effectively participate in decision-making. The kind of participation in planning, monitoring and evaluation can be said to be of few stakeholders in the sense that these (few) are the ones who determine the course and outcomes of the project. In other words, as the study of Makuwira (2004) reported, both the Dar es Salaam and Mbeya projects follow a management style that allow many to be involved but few make decisions. Therefore, this leads into the conclusion that the CSOs' claim to embrace stakeholders' participation does not necessarily mean participation that involves collective decision-making of key stakeholders.

With exception to donors and project's elite group, the rest of stakeholders were found to be the most uninformed and poor, factors that renders them voice-less even if they had a chance to participate in decision making. Furthermore, the inter-dependency between planning, monitoring and evaluation phases (IFAD 2002, Rosenau 1998) is not smoothly coordinated. The projects registered no attempts to make a significant number of key stakeholders participate in all project cycle phases (perpetual participation of key stakeholders) to keep track of the project development. Additionally, no noticeable effective means of sharing information that aim at informing each stakeholder about the proceedings of the project for effective participation seemed to exist. Consequently, the stakeholders that are 'lucky' to participate, they do so in a rather less-coordinated environment of the planning, monitoring and evaluation phases.

Nevertheless, most of the registered stakeholders' participation failures are attributed to the financial constraints that face the CSOs. The CSOs financial dependency on donors and the fact that financial resources from donors are known to be un-reliable and

sometimes accompanied with conditions (Clayton et al. 2000, Guèye 1999, Miller-Grandvaux et al. 2002), dictates CSOs to identify and involve few stakeholders in their projects. What is more, initiatives to attain donor-free financial sustainability were found to be lacking in Mbeya project and not well-coordinated in Dar es Salaam project. As a result, some important stakeholders do not get a chance to participate in the projects. Furthermore, important project aspects like capacity building which tend to increase the quality of stakeholders to participate even in tasks that require technical skills are impaired by the limited amount of financial resources. Consequently, the CSOs output is not the same as when the informed stakeholders are able to participate. On the other hand, the watchdog function of the CSOs against the government becomes less-effective in such circumstances of financial constraints.

6.2 THE URT POLICIES AND STAKEHOLDERS PARTICIPATION

As it is briefed in the previous chapter, the URT has a long history of stakeholders' participation awareness. It all started in the time of Mwalimu Julius Nyerere soon after independence in 1960s. Mwalimu Julius Nyerere insisted the importance of people to participate in decision-making; he was against the idea of citizens adhering to orders from their leaders without questioning (refer section 5.2.2). However, with regard to the giant education for self reliance policy, no considerable evidence was found to prove that Mwalimu Julius Nyerere himself practised stakeholders' participation in its formulation. Furthermore, the environment for effective stakeholders' participation was not conducive due to the fact that autonomous associations were not encouraged during Mwalimu Julius Nyerere period (refer section 5.2.2).

With regard to the URT government role to coordinate the functioning of CSOs involved in provision and or support of basic education after the period of Mwalimu Nyerere, many policies underscore the need and the importance to cooperate with stakeholders. In particular, the policies emphasize the importance of state-CSOs relationship to attain development (UTR 1995, URT 1998, URT 1999, URT 2000, URT 2001a, URT 2001b).

This shows how the URT government is politically willing to boost up the role of CSOs in development initiatives. However, like the period of Mwalimu Julius Nyerere, the problem lies on how the policies are formulated and implemented? In general, the stakeholders' participation in the formulation and implementation of policies in URT government is relatively weak. However, the URT has not lost control of her function to coordinate the functioning of CSOs; in fact the URT has registered a mixture of successes and failures. For instance, considerable URT government efforts are made to monitor the CSOs that are involved in provision and or support of basic education. This is what, among other factors, has resulted into the good quality of education in most of CSOs run schools. However, the URT has failed to monitor the distribution of CSOs to the extent that most of them are urban based while more than 70% of Tanzanians live in rural areas. Furthermore, the implementation of policies that underscore the state-CSOs relationship is being affected by the government officials who (at individual level) tend to give poor cooperation to CSOs officials.

On the other hand, the URT has been working under conditions of severe financial constraints. It has reached an extent of admitting in one of her major development strategy, MKUKUTA, that a substantial amount of URT budget will continue to depend on donor support over the immediate future (URT 2005:73). In this case the chances for the URT government to conduct extensive policy dialogues that incorporate various education stakeholders are minimal. As a result, the government stands at a risk of accepting the conditions imposed by donors (so as to get funds) regardless of what the stakeholders would have said.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS.

It should be pointed out that effective stakeholders' participation in CSOs is generally affected by various factors which includes, but are not limited to, the following; poverty-stricken and ill-informed participants, elite domination, illiteracy, bad policies of CSOs and / or government, poor implementation of CSOs and / or government policies. With reference to this study, financial constraints at a CSO and government levels were found to be rampant. Needless to say, this situation affects the extent and quality of

stakeholders' participation. It is therefore suggested that deliberate efforts should be made to initiate activities that will ensure financial sustainability within CSOs and the government. For instance, instead of CSOs focusing on the provision of educational services by the funds from donors, they should think of other finance generating mini-projects that can be done without or with little support from donors. The well-coordinated finance generating mini-projects ought to be a solution to the problem of donor-dependency. On the other hand, the URT government should focus on both long term and short term plans of attaining donor-free economy. This is because, the URT long term plans to attain donor-free economy (as documented in MKUKUTA) are at risk of failing should the donors respond negatively to support the current donor-dependency economy.

With regard to the projects involved in provision and or support of basic education, the elite and donors should learn avoid dominating the project, they should instead involve other stakeholders in decision making and much emphasis should be put on stakeholders' participation in policy formulation issues. The parents and students in this case are considered important and efforts should be made to involve them in projects planning, monitoring and evaluation. In general CSOs should adopt un-biased stakeholders identification strategies and improve capacity building to pave a way for effective participation of stakeholders in decision making. For instance, there should be effective means of communication to inform stakeholders about the project development. Furthermore, the planning, monitoring and evaluation phases should not be isolated from each other, rather a link through information sharing or perpetual participation of stakeholders in all phases should be established.

The URT government should monitor the distribution of CSOs so that they are not congested in urban centres. Since operating a project in rural areas may prove to be expensive due to poor infrastructures, the government should provide more incentives to CSOs that operates in rural areas. This initiative apart from boosting up the capacity of CSOs operating in rural areas, it will also attract more CSOs to operate in rural areas and in so doing meet the social service demands of the majority of Tanzanians who live in rural areas. On the other hand, the government should campaign against elite-domination

in CSOs. Looking at the URT policy formulation initiatives, as it was briefed earlier, the current URT government realizes the importance of stakeholders' participation in policy formulation and it is documented that stakeholders have been involved in formulating some policies or development plans in the Current URT. It is recommended that a study should be conducted to assess the stakeholders' identification strategies the URT is using, the quality of stakeholders involved and the nature of participation, is it an active participation?

Nevertheless, stakeholders' participation, as may be the case to any other concept, does not stand a chance of being a panacea for all the problems in projects. In fact, with regard to the earlier mentioned factors that hinder effective participation in developing countries, logic dictates that the cost associated with stakeholders' participation in developing countries ought to be high. It therefore seems imperative to conduct a cost-benefit analysis study between projects that practice stakeholders' participation and those that do not. Furthermore, given the fact that both the URT and CSOs are experiencing financial hardship, it is recommended that an extensive study to assess the quality of state-CSOs partnership should be carried out.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1.

SOME EXAMPLES OF PARTICIPATION APPROACH IN EDUCATION AND

TRAINING SECTOR (source: World Bank participation source book 1996, page 231 and 232).

Student and Community Participation in Colombia

Colombia's Escuela Nueva program was created in the mid-1970s to overcome curriculum, training, and administrative deficiencies in multigrade rural schools. The program incorporates a number of innovative components, including participation of students in school government and community participation in designing and supporting the school curriculum.

In each learning task, self-instruction books guide students to identify examples, cultural elements from their own experience, and local materials to be accumulated in the learning centers. Teachers are encouraged to organize meetings with parents and discuss the material prepared by the students. Children also participate in health, sanitation, and nutrition activities. In this way, the school gradually becomes a resource centre for teachers, for agencies operating in other sectors, and eventually for the community itself.

In addition, Escuela Nueva children are introduced to civic and democratic life through student councils. Students organize into committees to take care of discipline, cleaning, maintenance, sports, school garden, newspaper, and library. They also cooperate in the instructional process by helping slower students. This is seen as an essential part of the curriculum as it creates linkages between the school and the community.

Evaluation of the program, which has expanded rapidly to some 20,000 schools, suggests that educational achievement and civic behaviour compare favourably with the output of traditional schools at similar costs per pupil.

Mobilizing Community Support to Primary Schools in Pakistan

The community support program in primary education in Balochistan, a province in Pakistan, provides a remarkable example of what can be achieved in adverse conditions through participatory methods.

Beginning with a pilot project in 1992, the community support program has already succeeded in establishing 198 new community girls schools in remote rural villages that had no government school and no tradition of parental involvement in schools. Enrolment of girls is 100 percent in many of these villages with high attendance rates.

To begin the participatory process, community workers went door to door, urging parents to form an association. In each of the villages, education committees have been created that are responsible for selecting a site for the school, identifying potential teachers, and monitoring teacher attendance and student enrollment.

A local girl, educated at least to the eighth grade, has been identified and trained as teacher for each school. After she demonstrates her commitment by teaching for three months on a voluntary basis, mobile teacher-training teams are sent to her home village to provide intensive three-month pedagogical training. This home training is needed because of cultural barriers that prevent girls from traveling far. Following the training, the teacher becomes a government employee: government rules, which normally require teachers to have matriculated, have been stretched to accommodate the program.

The pilot project resulted from the initiative of a Pakistani consultant. The Bank Task Manager, with whom she discussed her plans, recognized the potential of this approach and was able to organize U.S. Agency for International Development funding for the pilot. The consultant subsequently formed a small NGO to qualify for funding from other sources, which now include local and international NGOs, USAID, the United Nations Children's Fund, and the government of Balochistan through a World Bank loan.

At the project preparation stage, when the pilot was tried, there was no way of knowing if the approach would work or not. The success of the pilot led to full acceptance and ownership of the program by the government, and the government itself is now funding the program on a province-wide basis using International Development Association credit. Because of the experimental nature of the project, World Bank support to the

program has only been possible through the new lending approach, which supports the entire primary education program rather than selected components.

APPENDIX 2.

THE INTERVIEW GUIDES.

Proposed Interview guide to official (s) at the Ministry of Education and Vocational training.

1. What is Government policy on Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) such as the Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), Community and Faith based Organisations, etc. that are involved in provision or support of basic education? What are the key documents that set out this policy?
2. Are there any conditions set by the Government that must be met by the CSO before it starts its school for example? Are these conditions met in practice? What about when a CSO is running a school? What conditions must it meet? Are these conditions met in practice? What happens if they are not met?
3. Who monitors and assesses Civil Society organisations involved in basic education provision? How? Any problems in achieving adequate monitoring? Any measures taken to improve monitoring or any plans to do so?
4. It is sometimes asserted that CSOs are good at involving stakeholders (e.g. parents, community leaders,) in decision making. How far is this assertion true with CSOs that support or provide basic education in Tanzania? Is there any study or report on this issue?
5. What is the contribution of CSOs in improving basic education in Tanzania? What kind of contribution is usually made? What are the strong and weak points of provisions by CSOs? Where in the country are they especially active?

6. What are the challenges and problems associated with the involvement of CSOs in Basic education? Are there any actions planned to deal with these problems? Is there any new task(s) that the Government would like CSOs to take on? (for instance on things like buildings, curriculum used, teaching materials used, criteria for admission of pupils, fees charges, children with special needs? Etc)

Thank you for your participation.

Prepared by Joshua Mhalila

MPhil. Student at the University of Oslo.

Proposed Interview guide with the staff of the project/programme.

(Project manager, coordinator, monitoring and evaluation officers etc.)

1. How is project planning, monitoring and evaluating conducted (who does what and at which stage)?

2. From the project's point of view, who is a "stakeholder" and who is not?

3. What does the project seek to achieve by involving stakeholders in each of these activities:

- Planning?
- Monitoring?
- Evaluation?

4. a) What evidence is there from the project that stakeholder involvement has made a difference in

- Planning?
- Monitoring?
- Evaluation?

b) Does the project plan to collect any evidence? How?

5. What are your views on what stakeholders are able to do, and what they are not able to do? Also, is there anything where involvement causes problems rather than leading to benefits?

6. a) What challenges or difficulties has the project experienced with stakeholders' participation in each of these activities:

- planning
- monitoring
- evaluation

b) What challenges or difficulties do you expect in the future, in these regards?

Thank you for your participation.

Prepared by Joshua Mhalila,

Student at the University of Oslo, Institute of Educational Research.

INTERVIEW GUIDE TO PROJECT STAKEHOLDERS (In Kiswahili)

Maswali kwa wadau wa mradi.

Je umeshawahi kushiriki katika shughuli kama vile mwanzaoni mwa mradi (kupanga-planning), kufuatilia maendeleo yake (monitoring) ama katika kutathmini mradi?

Kama jibu lako ni ndiyo.

a) ilikuwa lini?

b) wapi

c) katika sehemu ipi ya mradi (kupanga, kufuatilia, ama kutathmini?)

d) Unafikiri ulipewa uhuru wakutosha kutoa maoni yako?

e) je unafikiri maoni yako ama ya wadau wengine kama wewe yanafanyiwa kazi ipasavyo?

f) unafikiri ni sehemu zipi katika mradi ambazo zimeboreshwa kutokana na maoni na ushiriki wa wadau?

g) unafikiri ni sehemu zipi za mradi ambazo zipo hafifu kutokana na mchango mdogo wa wadau

h) je kuna shughuli za mradi ambazo unashiriki tu kwa kuwa zimepangwa lakini wewe binafsi huoni faida ya kuzifanya?

J) je unafikiri kuna umuhimu wa kuongeza ushiriki wa wadau? kama ndiyo, kwenye mambo yepi kwa mfano?

Kama jibu lako ni Hapana

a) Je unafikiri kuwashirikisha wadau katika kupanga , kufuatilia na kutathmini ni muhimu? Kwa nini?

b) Unafikiri ni katika sehemu zipi za mradi ama katika mambo gani wadau wakishirikiwa zaidi mchango wao utakuwa mkubwa?

c) Unafikiri ni katika sehemu zipi za mradi ama katika mambo gani wadau wakishirikishwa zaidi mchango wao utakuwa mdogo?

d) kama leo ungeteuliwa kuwa kiongozi mkuu wa mradi, ni mambo gani ambayo ungeanza nayo kuyarekebisha?

Nakushukuru kwa kushiriki.

Imetayarishwa na Joshua Mhalila

Anayesoma Chuo Kikuu Cha Oslo.